PERMEABILITY OF WORK AND GENDER IDENTITIES AS RELATED TO COPING STYLES AND SELF-EFFICACY IN MARRIED WORKING WOMEN

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by
ABHA VARMA

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DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

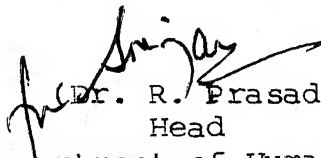INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY KANPUR

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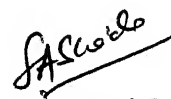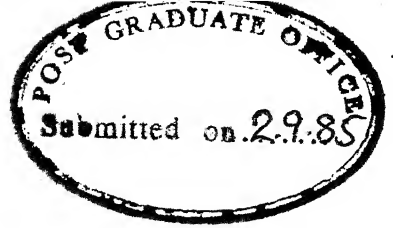INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, KANPUR

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms. Abha Varma has satisfactorily completed all the course requirements in the Ph.D. programme in Psychology. She offered the following courses:

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis "Permeability of Work and Gender Identities as Related to Coping Styles and Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Married Working Women" submitted by Ms. Abha Varma to the Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is a record of bonafide research work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance for the last two and a half years. The results embodied in the thesis have not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree or diploma.

Kanpur
August 1985

(Dr. Usha Kumar)
Thesis Supervisor.

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- Abha Varma

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SYNOPSIS

The main aim of the study was to examine the nature of differences, if any, in the coping styles and sense of self-efficacy in married working women varying in the relevance and meaning that they attached to work. The concepts of work-identity and gender-identity, as incorporated within the total sense of identity, were used to understand the ways in which women construed their work experiences. Sense of identity was defined by Erikson (1963) as the subjective feeling arising from self-perceptions of continuity running through one's past, present and future. It was stated to be characterized by having a stake in oneself (Kakar 1978). Though specifically related to adolescence, identity had its beginnings in infancy from the initial phase of self-object differentiation. As the self became more differentiated from the non self, it acquired selectivity in organizing personally relevant information (Hull and Levy 1979, Markus 1977). Due to this selectivity, some aspects became more differentiated and central in defining the self for the individual whereas others formed the periphery of the organization of the self-concept (Markus 1983). Sense of identity

referred to the subjective awareness resulting from the integration of the various aspects of the self and was organized around them. Since work and gender formed two major aspects of the self, it became relevant to examine the subjective experience of work as being determined not only by the work-identity but also by the relationship of work-identity to gender-identity. These two factors together were the independent variables for the study.

Work-identity was defined as the differentiated subsystem of the self which concerned itself with work experiences. Having endorsed the hierarchical organization of the self-concept (Epstein 1973, 1981, Shavelson and Bolus 1982), the question of relative importance of work in comparison to the other aspects of the self-system became crucial. It followed that women whose work-identity was peripheral would organize their work experiences differently from those whose work-identity was central.

Gender-identity referred to that differentiated subsystem which concerned itself with processing gender experiences. Gender-identity was an important variable for understanding the work experiences because traditionally it was regarded as contradictory to the expectations associated with work outside home. The relevance of this study lay in considering the influence of these sub-identities, apparently inconsistent, in coming to terms with women's own legitimacy to work.

Permeability was proposed as a moderating variable influencing the nature of the relationship between the two

sub-identities--work and gender. The relative openness and closedness of the sub-systems affected this crucial integration in providing associative networks which gave meaning to experiences.

Within this theoretical framework, utilising the key concepts of work-identity, gender-identity and permeability, it became possible to identify potentially eight groups of women who were likely to construe work differently. It was conjectured that different levels of each of the variables of work-identity, gender-identity and permeability would collectively affect the perspective of a married working women on her own self.

For our study, three groups were specially selected on the basis of the case study data available on them (Kumar 1984). A common feature among these women was that they were medium and high on gender-identity. In addition they endorsed the traditionally feminine roles of wife and mother. These three groups were:

Type I - Medium to high gender-identity, high work-identity, impermeable self-systems.

Type II - Medium to high gender-identity, high work-identity, permeable self-systems.

Type III - Medium to high gender-identity, subsumed work-identity with poor definition of boundaries within the self-system.

It was postulated that these three groups of women, once identified, would differ on levels of competence. Competence was defined as the individual's ability to

interact effectively with the environment. Styles of coping elaborated by Hall (1972) were considered to represent graduated control of environment and self. In continuation with the effort to operationalize the dependent variable of competence, this study also assessed the related self-efficacy beliefs of women.

Several specific hypotheses were formulated about differences between the three groups in their coping styles and self-efficacy beliefs. Generally it was expected that women who possessed a well differentiated work-identity and its permeable relationship with gender-identity would use more efficient coping strategies and score higher on the four dimensions of self-efficacy. Furthermore, it was expected that these women would also differ on some other related variables such as their perception of role strains, feelings of comfort with their jobs and formation of support networks. It was conjectured that an examination of these variables together would provide a meaningful picture of the life styles of women who were both married and had a job outside the home.

With the objective of testing these hypotheses, one hundred and thirty five women were initially considered for inclusion in the study. Out of these, sixty two married working women were finally selected after screening at two levels. All the sixty two women were medium to high on gender-identity as assessed by the Bem Sex Role Inventory and were judged on their work-identity as central or peripheral. The classification of these women was made on the

basis of their interview protocols. Twenty one women belonged to the Type I category, twenty two women to the Type II category and nineteen women in the Type III category. The mean age of women was 30.76 years (SD = 3.39), 31.41 years (SD = 2.84) and 30.53 years (SD = 2.89) for the Type I, Type II and Type III groups respectively. This difference was not significant. The average duration of working for the Type I group was 7.93 years (SD = 3.87), Type II group was 8.18 years (SD = 3.49) and Type III group was 7.66 years (SD = 3.47).

The Embedded Figures Test (Witkin et.al. 1962) later provided a check of the level of permeability arrived through interviewing the women. The Coping Styles Questionnaire (Gray 1983) consisting of seventy five items was designed to assess the stated use of each of the three styles of coping defined by Hall (1972). These three styles of coping were "structural role redefinition", "personal role redefinition" and "reactive role behaviour". Structural role redefinition was characterized by active attempts to bring about changes in the demands sent by role senders. Personal role redefinition was characterized by a gender defined way of coping and reactive role behaviour implied an attempt to fulfill all the demands of work and home. In addition, the Coping Styles Questionnaire assessed the role strains, feelings of comfort and support networks of the married working women. It also assessed the generality of self-efficacy beliefs.

The Self-Efficacy Task (Betz and Hackett 1981) assessed the responses of women regarding their self-efficacy beliefs on the dimensions of magnitude, strength and active control. All these measures provided a detailed picture of the life styles of the three categories of married working women.

In analysing the scores obtained on the Coping Styles Questionnaire, it was observed that the Type I women used personal role redefinition and reactive role behaviour coping strategies equally and significantly ($p < .01$) more often than they used structural role redefinition. The Type II women used structural role redefinition significan-
tly ($p < .01$) more often than they used reactive role behaviour. In addition, they used personal role redefinition signifi-cantly ($p < .01$) more often than they used reactive role behaviour. The Type III women used personal role redefinition significantly ($p < .05$) more often than they used structural role redefinition or reactive role behaviour.

Analysis of scores further revealed that the Type II women scored significantly higher ($p < .05$) than the Type I and Type III women on the generality, strength and active control dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs. Among the Type I and Type III women, Type I scored higher ($p < .01$) on the strength of self-efficacy beliefs and lower on the dimensions of generality ($p < .01$) and active control ($p < .01$). No differences were observed between the three categories of women on the magnitude of self-efficacy beliefs.

In addition, it was observed that the Type I and Type III women perceived greater ($p < .01$, $p < .05$) role strains than the Type II women. The Type II women felt the most ($p < .01$) comfortable at having taken up a job. The Type I women felt more ($p < .01$) comfortable than the Type III women at having transgressed their traditional sex role boundaries to work outside. The Type II women formed more ($p < .01$) support networks than Type I or Type III women. The Type III women, in turn, formed more support networks ($p < .05$) than Type I women.

The findings seemed to suggest that women with salient work-identities and permeable self-systems handled their work experiences, in general, differently from those with salient work-identities and impermeable self-systems or from those with secondary work-identities and permeable self-systems. Even though all the three categories of women ascribed a central role to their experience of femininity, yet each group stated use of a particular style of coping to "fit" work and gender sub-identities. The Type II women used, what seemed like, the most efficient coping strategies. Earlier researches have stated that internally integrated people in being aware of the valued aspects of their identity used structural role redefinition maximally as compared to the other two types of coping styles (Gray 1983, Hall 1972, Stewart 1978). It could possibly be inferred that the permeability between well-developed sub-identities provided the Type II women with a knowledge

that both work and gender were valued aspects of their self-definition.

In addition, permeability, by definition, implied the availability of experiences occurring in one sub-system to the other sub-systems of the self. Thus, when permeable boundaries or open-systems are assumed, successful experiences are likely to be absorbed and assimilated by more than one sub-system of the woman's identity forming the generality of self-efficacy belief. Strength of self-efficacy was found to be related to the centrality of work-identity (Helson 1975). It was further postulated that the self perceptions of active control by the Type II women could possibly be influencing their coping strategies. Only after one believes in one's ability to change the outer environment, will he or she be effective in structuring the demands of the external world.

Comparing Type I and Type III women, the generality dimension of self-efficacy seemed to fit the overwhelming aspect of the gender-identity vis-a-vis the work-identity in the Type III women. Successful work experiences, it is assumed, were generalized on the whole to a larger gender-system. The Type I women, by their rigid demarcation of work and home, were likely to take experiences of success in a restricted manner. The situation was reversed when it came to strength of self-efficacy. Rigid demarcation of self-systems in Type I women still made them more differentiated than Type III women. This possibly gave Type I women sustained strength over more areas of transaction.

Perceptions of role strains appeared to be related to the types of coping strategies. Both Type I and Type III women used what has been called by Hall (1972) as passive coping strategies. It has been observed earlier that working women with relatively traditional attitudes coped by meeting all the expectations associated with the two roles and therefore generated greater role strains for themselves (Beutell and Greenhaus 1983, Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble and Zellman 1978). That a woman's employment had negative effects on her child's development, was highlighted in the case of Type I and Type III women. This finding gained support from Rice (1979) who observed that the maternal role provided the greatest setback for progress in a woman's career.

The finding that the Type II women formed more support networks than the Type I or Type III women could be explained on the basis of our findings on coping strategies. The Type II women sought active help from others in managing the dual role demands. Hock, Christman and Hock (1981) observed that flexible women integrated the two sets of roles by actively sharing their responsibilities with others. Gaddy, Glass and Arnkoff (1983) observed that flexible women entered more egalitarian marriages where the responsibilities of child rearing were shared by both the parents. The Type II women's efficient coping strategies, their reduced role strains, good support networks and self initiated action all led to the conclusion of their overall competence in dealing with their dual roles. The

construction of work experiences, it may be concluded, proved a powerful variable in categorizing women and predicting their ability to deal with work and home.

As this investigation could not cover all combinations of levels of work-identity, gender-identity and permeability, further research could throw light on the nature of work experiences as construed by those low on gender-identity and high on work-identity with permeable or impermeable self-systems. This would provide a broader basis of comparison of groups.

A further examination of the ego-identity statuses (Marcia 1966) of the women considered in our study would be a logical sequel to it.

It would be interesting to study the differences in developmental experiences as leading to different ways of construing work experiences. An examination of the developmental events which led to the formulation of a particular kind of work-identity would serve rich predictive value. Also needed is an examination of sex differences regarding the feelings of competence generated in the work arena. Though this study could be a predictor for self-efficacy beliefs of men as well, one needs more empirical base to assert this with confidence.

Chapter 1

Introduction

I. BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

This study explored the nature of work experience and its relationship to competence in married working women in the Indian setting. More specifically, it examined the ways in which women's views about work affected their coping styles. This study also investigated those working women's sense of self-efficacy who had at least overtly endorsed acceptance of feminine roles through marriage and motherhood. Following this lead with empirical evidence, the major issue was one of understanding ways in which married working women integrated their work experiences with the acceptance of their femininity.

The study took cognizance of the fact that Indian women attached different meaning and relevance to work outside their home. In a developing country, where the existential demands of day-to-day subsistence loomed large for a majority of the population, the pertinent question raised was what did work outside home mean for an Indian woman? Did it provide autonomy and independence to her as was believed of the western counterpart or was it a source of exploitation by the employers and family members alike (Kumar 1984)? In a country where working women belonged to diverse socio-economic groups, did work provide an avenue for the development of a sense of identity or did it stay only an external

reality to be reckoned with? These were some of the issues in the background before focussing on the work experience of women.

Within this general perspective, the discussion below focussed upon the self-system as comprising the work and gender identities and permeability of boundaries between the sub-systems as moderating the work and gender identities. The relationship of two sub-identities was observed through the nature of coping styles and levels of self-efficacy.

II. THE SELF AND THE SENSE OF IDENTITY

Historically, the term self had its roots in phenomenology where the focus was upon examining the experiential reality of the individual (Allport 1961, Lecky 1945, Maslow 1954, Murphy 1947, Snygg and Combs 1949). It served an explanatory function in that it provided a frame of reference for understanding the subjective behaviour of individuals. The self formed the nucleus of the phenomenal field (Lecky 1945) and was defined in terms of the 'I' or 'me' or as the individual's reactions to himself or herself. Thus it was believed that the self existed as the central sub-system of the broader experiential reality of the person.

Snygg and Combs (1949) defined the self-concept as "those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as definite and fairly stable characteristics of himself" (p. 112). They stated that the self-concept contained changeable as well as stable characteristics. The views of Snygg and Combs (1949) were similar to those of Rogers (1951), who defined the self as "an

organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perception of characteristics and relationships of the 'i' or the 'me' together with values attached to these concepts" (p. 498). Thus, broadly, the self referred to the psychic organization amenable to changes with experience where personal meanings formed the dynamic generators of behaviour (Combs 1981). It was "a sub-system of internally consistent, hierarchically organized concepts contained within a broader conceptual system" (Epstein 1973, p. 407).

The hierarchical organization of the various aspects of the self (Epstein 1973, 1981, Shavelson and Bolus 1982) was determined by the developmental history of the individual. According to some researchers (Hull and Levy 1979; Markus 1977; Markus, Crane, Bernstein and Siladi 1982), as the self became more differentiated from the non-self and increasingly more complex, it acquired selectivity in organizing personally relevant information. Due to this selectivity, some aspects became more differentiated and central in defining the self for the individual whereas others formed the periphery of the organization of the self-concept (Markus 1983, Markus and Smith 1981). Thus the self was construed only around those aspects of itself that were personally meaningful (Kuiper and Rogers 1979, Rogers 1981, Rogers, Kuiper and Kirker 1977).

The active process through which the individuals synthesized and integrated the various aspects of the self and acquired a subjective awareness about them was referred to as the formulation of a sense of identity (Erikson 1963, 1968, Marcia 1966, 1980, Kakar 1978). Identity implied "a

sense of having a stake in oneself" (Kakar 1978, pp. 2).
It was characterized by assumptions of continuity of inner
sameness running from the past, through the present and into
the future (Marcia 1966). In addition to a global sense of
identity which was regarded as the synthesis of the various
aspects of the self, the individual generated for himself
or herself specific identities associated with particular
sub-systems in the self. The way in which these specific
identities were formulated and the extent to which they were
differentiated depended upon the centrality of these parti-
cular systems within the overall self-system.

Since work and gender formed two major aspects of the
self organization, it was believed that an examination of
these specific self-identities would provide rich theoretical
insights into the way in which the work and gender aspects
of the self were organized within the self-system.

A. Work-Identity and the Self-System

1. Salient versus Secondary Work-Identity

Within the context of the preceding discus-
sion, work identity was defined in terms of the
subjective awareness of the centrality of work in
the total self-system of an individual (Jacobson
1964, Ellis, Gehman and Katzenmeyer 1980). It
referred to the extent to which the perception of
self at work became a differentiated aspect of the
self-system (Almquist and Angrist 1970, Baruch,

Segal and Hendrick 1968, Barrett and Tinsley 1977,
Cooper 1976, Greenhaus 1974, Holahan and Gilbert
1979, Kumar 1982, 1984). Work-identity was stated
to be formulated on the basis of the salience accor-
ded to the individual's career. This, in everyday
operations, became an issue of "the degree to which
work formed a central feature of adult life"
(Almquist and Angrist 1970, p. 242). As a conse-
quence, salient work-identity became instrumental
in providing a major arena for sustaining identity
in individuals' adult life (Bielby and Bielby 1984).
Safilios-Rothchild (1971) referred to work-identity
as "the relative distribution of interest, time,
energy and emotional investment in work in relation
to other life sectors and notably to family life"
(p.. 491). Thus the issues of salience of work-
identity were related to the issues of importance
of work as a part of an individual's adult self-
system (Bielby and Bielby 1984, Haller and Rosenmayr
1971). For Kumar (1984), salient work-identity
was characterized by the extent to which work
related schemas formed major ways of processing
information about the self.

It was observed that for some individuals,
work existed as a clearly differentiated aspect of
the self-system as against those who perceived it
as secondary or peripheral when compared to other
aspects of themselves (Dubin and Champoux 1975, 1977,

Richardson 1975, Rousseau 1978, Schmitt and Mellon 1980, Swatko 1981). It was reasonable to expect and evidence confirms it, that individuals' evaluation of work experience varies with their levels of work-identity in that individuals with high work-identity process information differently from those relatively low on it (Buchholz 1977, 1978, Gysbers, Johnson and Gust 1968, Misra and Kalro 1981, Pathak 1983).

2. Behavioural Manifestations of Work-Identity

Several authors have used terms such as commitment to work (Cook and Wall 1980, Dixon and Claiborn 1981, Fogarty Rapoport and Rapoport 1971, Hock, Christman and Hock 1980), job involvement (Kanungo 1979, 1982, Lodahl and Kejner 1965, Lawler and Hall 1970, McKelvey and Sekaran 1977, Pathak 1983, Rabinowitz and Hall 1977), career orientation (Almquist and Angrist 1970, Bartol 1976, Richardson 1975) interchangeably with work-identity. It was important to distinguish between these concepts and work-identity because work, despite being a central feature of adult life, may not be accompanied by a sense of work-identity (Waterman and Waterman 1976). It was observed that a mere intention to continue in a particular field was not sufficient to warrant the label "committed". Even with a highly differentiated work schema, the concept of work-identity would vary in terms of objectives, efforts,

reward systems, sets of beliefs, perceptions and values (Buchholz 1977, 1978, Cochran 1983, Hall and Gordon 1973, Heneman Jr. 1973, Kumar 1982, 1984, Orden and Bradburn 1969). Orden and Bradburn (1969) suggested that women could be divided into those who worked by choice and those who worked out of necessity. Those who worked by choice sought expression of their "self" in their work life (Gurin, Veroff and Feld 1960) and were psychologically identified with work (Lodahl and Kejner 1965, Rabinowitz and Hall 1977). Work situation was perceived as an important aspect of their life so much so that it meant living out a sense of identity (Engel, Marsden and Woodaman 1967, McKelvey and Sekaran 1977, Hall 1971, 1976 /). They derived more intrinsic satisfactions from work which were associated with the satisfaction of higher order needs (Slocum 1971).

On the other hand, it was found that external pressures based on family or financial requirements, advice of others, location of the job and the salary provided forced some women to take on the work role without providing critical inputs to the development of self-systems (Burlin 1976, Calder and Staw 1975, Dawis and Lofquist 1978, Hamner and Foster 1975, Kumar 1982, 1984, Waterman and Waterman 1976). They were less committed to their choice than those women whose choices were made more or less free from external constraints (Calder and Staw 1975, Deci

1972, Lepper and Greene 1975, Salancik 1977, Wortman 1975). In this context, Miller, Schooler, Kohn and Miller's study (1979) stating that women working under pressure represented themselves less favourably, more rigidly and less effectively in intellectual functioning than those who worked by choice is relevant. Thus differences in the salience of work-identity of women also included differences in their feelings about work or the meanings attached to these specialized tasks.

B. Gender-Identity and the Self-System

1. Traditional and Current Conceptions of Gender-Identity

Gender-identity was traditionally conceptualised as sex-role identity with masculinity and femininity forming the bipolar ends of this unidimensional construct (Bakan 1966, Carlson 1971, Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble and Zellman 1978, Maccoby and Jacklin 1974, Stasz 1974). Each end of the continuum was ascribed a constellation of characteristics—masculinity as agency, instrumentation and individuation and femininity as expressive, communion and relationships (Bakan 1966, Carlson 1971, Guttman 1970, Johnson 1963). Sex-role identity was characterized by the fact that there were two distinct and dichotomous sex roles defined as "masculine" and "feminine". An awareness of these

sex-roles as a defining aspect of the individual's self-system was referred to as sex-role identity. It was believed that an all-pervasive social classification differentiating boys and girls in terms of certain traits and characteristics, early in life allowed them to forge their identity on the basis of their own gender (Kohlberg 1966, Marcus and Overton 1978). This learnt sex-role identity formed an important aspect of the self-identity (Money and Ehrhardt 1972, Sherif 1982, Liben and Signorella 1980).

The current contributions to the study of gender-identity were more cognitive in their orientation moving beyond trait descriptions of masculinity and femininity to theoretical analysis of cognitive structures or schemas (Bem 1981, Markus, Crane, Bernstein and Siladi 1982). Gender-identity was conceptualised as perceptions of self-relevant information about gender. Bem (1981) stated that boys and girls, while growing up, acquired a cognitive structure consisting of a network of associations linked to the concepts of masculinity and femininity as defined by their culture. In this framework, gender-identity was defined as the "gender-relevant schematic processing of information about the self" (Bem 1981, pp. 358). Operationally, gender-identity was observed as the "readiness on the part of the individual to encode and to organize

information, including information about the self, in terms of the culture's definition of maleness or femaleness" (Bem 1981, p. 355). It was observed that sex-role standards learned by the individuals become a touch stone for the individuals to assess the appropriateness of their gender-related behaviour (Bem 1981, Markus 1977, 1983, Spence and Helmreich 1979). In essence, this subjective evaluation of one's own self as defining the culture's conceptions of masculinity or femininity was defined as gender-identity of the individual (Dorgan, Goebel and House 1983, Powell and Butterfield 1981, Storms 1979, Wheeler 1981).

2. Classification of Individuals on the Basis of Gender-Identity

Originally, masculinity and femininity formed two opposite ends of the same continuum and were defined in terms of "a constellation of qualities an individual understands to characterize males and females in the society" (Block 1973, pp. 512). Individuals were classified as either high on masculinity (which automatically placed them as low in femininity) or high on femininity (and by design low on masculinity).

On the contrary, more recently masculinity and femininity were viewed as separate and possibly orthogonal dimensions (Bem 1974, 1975, Bem and Lenney 1976, Bem, Martyna and Watson 1976, Berzins,

and Bass
Welling and Wetter 1978, Cartwright, Lloyd, Nelson /1983,
Constantinople 1973, Heilbrun 1976, Kelly and Worrell
1977, Kelly, Furman and Young 1978, McPherson and
Spetrino 1983, Motowidlo 1982, Spence, Helmreich and
Stapp 1975, Welch and Huston 1982, Wheeler 1981,
Wiggins and Holzmuller 1978). In this new framework,
a fourfold classification scheme based on the distri-
bution and strength of responses obtained from the
individual on both masculinity as well as femininity
is possible (Bem 1974, 1975, Heilbrun 1976). Accor-
ding to this less simplistic classification system,
an individual could be high on masculinity and yet
have low femininity, be high on femininity with low
masculinity, be high on both (androgynous) or low on
both (undifferentiated) (Bem 1974). Empirical evi-
dence suggests that this classification of masculi-
nity and femininity is associated to other behavi-
oural variables such as self-esteem, cognitive
complexity, career orientation and adjustment as
well (Cartwright, Lloyd, Nelson and Bass 1983, Harren, Kass,
Tinsley and Moreland 1978, 1979, McPherson and
Spetrino 1983, Wakefield, Sasek, Friedman and Sasek
1976, Welch and Huston 1982).

C. Work-Identity and Gender-Identity within the Self-
    System

   While the proposition, that work and gender provided
major avenues of processing information about the self,

made the issue of understanding women's work experience more complex than the usual traditional formulation of the problem, it also simultaneously provided a fresh insight for reviewing   women's experience of work against the issues of women's acceptance of their femininity. The complexity arose from the apparent, contradiction in a woman's acceptance of her culture's definition of femininity and her subsequent attempt to reconcile her career demands with home-making and child-rearing expectations.

It was assumed that a gender-identity based prominently on stereotyped definitions of gender, could negatively affect women's work partly because it delegated responsibility of child-rearing exclusively to the mother (Harren, Kass, Tinsley and Moreland 1978, Hock 1978, 1980). Rice (1979) stated that the maternal role provided the biggest set of societal expectations that worked against the women's identity. Girls were socialized to give priority to their familial roles over those associated with the occupational world (Kumar 1979, Kaufman and Fetters 1980, Graddick and Farr 1983). In traditional marriages, the wife was expected to bear the primary responsibility for family demands. Women who entertained traditional values in their marriage were expected to make greater sacrifices for their family (Gaddy, Glass and Arnkoff 1983, Hock, Christman and Hock 1980, Kumar 1979). Not surprisingly, Fogarty, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) suggested that traditional

women tended to idealize the motherhood state and eagerly expressed their intention to drop out of the work force. Kumar (1979), within the context of Indian setting, stated that birth of a child, specially a male child, conferred upon the woman "a final recognition of her fulfilled destiny for which she was brought up" (p. 163). In addition, gender-identity interfered with womens' work-experiences because for many women work was perceived as contrary to their sense of femininity (Horner 1972, Maccoby and Jacklin 1974, Lunnenborg and Gerry 1977, Price and Borgers 1977). It was also observed that the conflict between work and gender were salient for some women only. Women who were low in their endorsement of gender related behaviour differed from traditional women regarding their progress in the chosen occupation (Crawford 1978, Osipow 1983, Waterman and Waterman 1976, Yuen, Tinsley and Tinsley 1980).

The manner in which women combined their work and career expectations with those of being a woman, was frequently related to differences in the centrality of work-identity. Women for whom work-identity existed as a salient part of the self-system construed work differently to those for whom work-identity was secondary to or subsumed by the gender-identity (Kriger 1972, Yuen, Tinsley and Tinsley 1980). For the home-oriented women, the self-schema and the gender-schema were assumed to overlap to such an extent that beliefs about their femininity (including gender-linked activities)

became beliefs about their self-identity (Kumar 1984).
In such cases, "a gender schema is likely to be highly
available and centrally implicated in information proce-
ssing about gender in general and gender related aspects
of the self in particular" (Markus, Crane, Bernstein and
Siladi 1982, p. 40). For these home-oriented women,
work outside home was considered secondary to their
primary role of a home-maker (Kumar 1982, 1984). Their
work life was not systematically directed toward the
achievement of their career goals (Richardson 1975). In
such cases, work outside home was perceived as a useful
stop gap arrangement in the interim period between
college and marriage or as an insurance policy against
adverse circumstances later in life (Kumar 1979, 1982,
Wolfson 1976). These women consciously subordinated
their work demands to family demands (Bailyn 1970,
Schein 1973, 1975, 1978).   In such cases,
women gave priority to their husbands' work over that of
theirs. Such a woman's work involvement usually became
secondary to that of her husband and to the needs of
her family (Bailyn 1970, Gould and Werbel 1983, Nieva
and Gutek 1981).

On the other hand, some studies identified women
who accorded near equal primacy to both work and gender
related activities. The salient attributes of these
women were that they structured their time differently,
displayed autonomy and individuality and valued mastery
and independence. It was also found that these women

were motivated to perform at a capacity level higher
than the women for whom work activities held a secondary
position to gender related activities (Farmier 1983,
Fitzgerald and Crites 1980, Graddick and Farr 1983,
Kaufman and Fetters 1980). Thus the way in which work
experiences related with those of gender depended upon
the degree of centrality attributed to work as a part of
the total self-system (Astin and Myint 1971, Harmon
1970, Hawley 1971, Munley 1974, Oliver 1974, Richardson
1975, Tinsley and Faunce 1978, Yuen, Tinsley and Tinsley
1980).

III. **PERMEABILITY OF** BOUNDARIES AS A MODERATING VARIABLE
FOR WORK AND GENDER SUB-IDENTITIES

A. Construct of Permeable Boundaries

1. Definition of Permeability

The concept of permeability was theoretically
and empirically linked with the cognitive and
behavioural flexibility and rigidity dimension
(Chown 1959, Frank and Davis 1982, Goodenough 1976,
Kounin 1948, Ohnmacht 1966, Packer and Bain 1978,
Panek, Stoner and Baystekner 1983, Ryans 1939,
Schaie 1958, Simon, Primavera, Klein and Cristal
1972, Werner 1946, Zawel 1970). It had its begin-
nings in the Lewinian theory which for the first
time linked the existence of rigidity to the
presence of strong boundaries between mental

functions and suggested that permeability instead
of rigidity woul` be a better name for the proper-
ties of mental boundaries (Chown 1959, Kounin 1948).
According to the Lewinian theory, the construct of
rigidity was defined as "a postulated property of
personality structure which has its place in a
series of interrelated statements in topological
and vector psychology" (Chown 1959). Thus perme-
ability was conceived in terms of active inter-
action between various structured and differenti-
ated regions of the self called schemas (Chown
1959, Neisser 1976, Taylor and Crocker 1981, Tesser
1980). Two schemas were said to be in communica-
tion with each other when the degree to which a
state of change in A brought about changes in the
state c: B (Kounin 1948). Permeability referred
to the closeness of the functional relations
between neighbouring regions of the personality
(Chown 1959). Rigidity was defined as "that
property of the mental boundary which prevents
communication between neighbouring regions" (Kounin
1948, p. 158).

Thus permeability was defined in terms of
flexibility of information processing (Frank and
Noble 1984, Feldman 1981) or the "open processing of
information" (Goldsmith 1984). It referred to the flex-
ibility of parameters separating the given regions
as contrasted with rigidity which implied the

segregation of boundaries of given regions (Kounin 1948, Simon, Primavera, Klein and Cristal 1972).

2. Permeability and Psychological Differentiation

The concept of permeability was also connected with the concept of psychological differentiation (Kounin 1948). Psychological differentiation was def- ined as the gradual development of the self from the non-self as well as the effective integration of incre- asingly more complex parts of the total behavioural system (Witkin 1965, Witkin and Berry 1975, Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough and Karp 1962, 1965, Witkin and Goodenough 1977, Witkin, Goodenough and Ottman 1979, Olowu, 1984). Permeability was considered to be an aspect of psychological differentiation.

Research evidence indicated that psychologically less differentiated individuals were more likely to process information rigidly (Davis and Frank 1979, Goldsmith 1984, Ohnmacht 1966, Zawel 1970). Rigid processing of information prevented awareness of alter- native meanings (Cacioppo and Petty 1979, Davis and Frank 1979, Davies 1982, Frank and Davis 1982, Good- enough 1976, Packer and Bain 1978, Petty and Cacioppo 1979). This unawareness also led to a reliance on external sources of confirmation of one's own self (Witkin and Goodenough 1977). On the contrary, psycho- logically differentiated individuals possessed a sense of

separate identity implying an aware-
ness of the needs, feelings and attitudes of one's
own as distinct from those imposed by others.

B. Moderating Effects of Permeability

The moderating effect of permeable boundaries in
affecting individuals' sense of identity could be
observed in the dynamic interaction between the sub-
systems of the self. Permeable boundaries allowed
experience to become available to major aspects of self-
system which actively participated to give meaning to
that event. This processing of information as a joint
function of the various sub-systems sustained the
process of continuous redefinition of individual's
sense of identity. Thus the dynamic interaction
between sub-systems as facilitated by permeable boun-
daries, allowed for the various aspects of the self-
system to expand, assimilate and to integrate seemingly
diverse information about the self (Burlin 1976, Dawis
and Lofquist 1976, Kumar 1984, Miller, Schooler, Kohn
and Miller 1979). For instance, despite work being
perceived as traditionally antithetical to women's
identity, experiences of it were more readily acco-
mmodated in those women whose self-system were mediated
through permeable boundaries.

Thus, work with its agentic aspects could yet be
accommodated within the sub-systems without violating
any self-definition if boundaries were permeable.

Women with permeable structures within the self-system
perceived a stronger and a more direct relationship
between their self-concept and their work experiences
(Cochran 1983, Lawler and Hall 1970, Waterman and
Waterman 1976). From the perspective of the gender
sub-system, the concept of androgyny provided a speci-
fic instance of operations of permeable boundaries in
moderating the nature of identity (Bem 1974, 1975, 1977,
Heilbrun 1976, Spence and Helmreich 1979). Androgyny
was defined as a self-concept in which both seemingly
irreconciliable masculine and feminine characteristics
were perceived to have a meaningful existence (Bem
1975, 1981, Bem and Lenney 1976, Bem, Martyna and
Watson 1976, Orlofsky 1978, Heilbrun 1976, Spence,
Helmreich and Stapp 1975, Waterman 1982). It was
conjectured that the ability to process alternative
or contradictory meanings through permeable structures
allowed these androgynous women to manage what appeared
like inconsistencies without violating the totality of
their selfhood.

The differences in women which emerged as a
consequence of permeable versus impermeable boundaries,
were further related to more basic stylistic differ-
ences in processing information about the self.
Within the context of gender-identity, Bem (1979)
asserted that the differences between androgynous and
sextyped individuals related to cognitive differences
in the flexible processing of information. According

to her, it was these stylistic cognitive differences
in terms of flexible schemas that represented the
fundamental difference between androgynous and sextyped
individuals (Bem 1979). It was found that rigid sex-
typing was detrimental to the behavioural flexibility
necessary to cope with the myriad demands of adult life
(Antill and Cunningham 1980, Bem 1974, 1976). Research
evidence suggested that sextyped individuals were moti-
vated to respond with a limited repertoire to most
situations, because they were linked perceptually and
cognitively to stereotypic sex-role standards (Goodman
and Kantor 1983, Kelly and Worrell 1977, Banikiotes, Kubin-
ski and Pursell 1981, McPherson and Spetrino 1983). It was
observed that permeability of boundaries could pre-
dispose the individual to participate in a wide range
of activities and experiences (Calder and Staw 1975,
Dawis and Lofquist 1976, Hamner and Foster 1975,
Kruglanski, Alon and Lewis 1972, O'Reilly III and
Caldwell 1980).

IV. COMPETENCE

A. A Historical Survey of the Concept of Competence

   Even though clear conceptual reference to compe-
tence as a construct appeared for the first time in
White's (1959) effectance motivation, the notion of
competence had a relatively long history. Groos (1901)
for the first time stated that human beings possessed
a need for producing effects over the environment. This

issue again came to light when researchers began to
question the drive-reduction model. They felt that the
processes governing hunger, thirst and sex were inade-
quate and different from the processes underlying play,
exploration and efforts to interact effectively with
the environment (Berlyne 1950, Butler 1958, Harlow 1952,
Hendrick 1942, 1943, Myers and Miller 1954, Montgomery
1954). Emergence of these views inherently supported
the claim that human beings were active seekers and
processors of stimulation and explorers of the environ-
ment all with the purpose of having an impact over
their surroundings. Hendrick (1942, 1943) labelled it
as the "instinct to master". He stated that the perfor-
mance of well integrated ego functions enabled a person
to control and to alter his environment. According to
Hendrick (1942, 1943), this ability to cope with the
external world, to control and to change the environment
yielded "primary pleasure" to the organism. Mittleman
(1954) proposed a "motility urge" which he conceived of
as the driven, persistent, time consuming quality of
motor activity related to reality testing.

Indirect references to the concept of competence
appeared in the works of Piaget (1952) and Erikson
(1952). Although Piaget did not deal with the concept
of competence per se, the implication of Piagetian
theory was that the individual's desire to know, to
explore and to solve problems was inseparably tied to
adaptation to reality. Similarly, Erikson's (1952)

focus upon the initial developmental crises of autonomy, initiative and industry all appeared to be facets of competence. More specifically, Erikson's fourth stage of development, a sense of industry characterized the disposition to refine and to develop new skills in the gross and fine motor and intellectual spheres. The need to explore and to produce effectance over the environment was also discussed in Maslow's (1954) need actualization theory. Foote and Cottrell (1955) defined competence as the effective organization of present effort directed toward realizing goals.

However, it was in White's (1959, 1960) conceptualization that the concept of competence seemed to come of age. In 1959, White presented a well developed theoretical framework for studying the concept of competence. He proposed the term "effectance" for "competence" and defined it in terms of the individual's ability to interact effectively with the environment. He stated that the characteristic features of effectance were manifested in exploration, curiosity, mastery and the seeking of an optimum level of stimulation. The term "sense of competence" described the experiences of efficacy generated as a consequence of directed, selective and persistent behaviour.

From the social reinforcement perspective, the focus was upon operationalising the concept of competence. Bandura (1982) defined competence as involving a "generative capability in which component skills must

be selected and organized into integrated courses of
action to manage the changing task demands" (p. 122).
This definition provided the empirical linkage between
the abstract global concept of competence (as the
ability to carry on effective transactions with the
environment) and the operational translations of it as
the selection of skills needed for specific contexts.
The social learning theorists also focussed upon the
ways in which people acquired competent behaviour. For
instance,Harter(1978a,b,1980) emphasized the importance
of rewards, feedback and social reinforcement in stren-
gthening individual's beliefs of mastery of the self.
In receiving feedback of his or her performance, the
individual identified not only specific mastery beha-
viours that led to it, but also increased his or her
awareness of the context.

In conclusion, it can be said that competence in
its historical development was a reaction against the
simplistic explanations of human behaviour explained
on the basis of drive reduction. In the competence
perspective, individual's behaviour pattern constituted
something more than either being oriented toward the
satisfaction of primary drives or being conditioned
by the external events. In it,individual possessed a
need to explore, to learn and to actively seek novel
experiences. Researchers from diverse theoretical
perspectives unequivocally realized the significance
of competence as an explanatory construct for understanding

not so well understood human behaviours (Finkelstein
1977, Gough 1981, Kir.chenbaum and Perri 1982, McClelland
1973, Mowder 1979, Phillips and Lord 1980). With this
consensus on the importance of the concept of competence,
the psychologists proceeded to give it a specific
meaning to fit their own theoretical and research inter-
ests. While some focussed upon the developmental begin-
nings of competent behaviour (Belsky, Goode and Most
1980, Belsky and Most 1981, Belsky, Garduque and Hrncir
1984, Finkelstein 1977, Olson, Bates and Bayes 1984,
Jennings, Harmon, Morgan, Gaiter and Yarrow 1979,
Yarrow 1981) others developed the strategies for the
acquisition of competent behaviour. Problem solving
and ego strengths were taken as related constructs and
issues of competence began to be studied in specific
arenas such as the performance of managers in organiztions
(Schein 1976) or more expanded ones such as individuals'
capability to cope with the existential crises during
their life.

B. Operational Definitions of Competence

Examination of two interrelated processes was
necessary in order to understand the operational aspect
of competence. These were the actual competencies
needed to interact effectively with the environment
and the subsequent experiences of self-efficacy in
having done it successfully.

1. Behavioural Correlates of Competence

Available research literature indicated two dominant trends characterizing the behavioural manifestations of competence. The first trend dealt with the ability aspect of competence. Competence was regarded in terms of task specific skills or abilities (Bandura 1977, 1978, Bandura and Schunk 1981, Fischer 1980, Gill and Keats 1980, Gough 1981, Kirschenbaum and Perri 1982, Yarrow 1981). As stated earlier, Bandura's (1932) definition empirically linked White's (1959) theoretical conceptualization of competence to its behavioural correlates as selection of skills needed for integrated courses of action in specific contexts. Competence was studied in terms of finding a match between the acquired skills and abilities and the requirements of the task situation.

Fischer(1980) described competencies as hierarchically ordered skills. He regarded the psychological transformation of a helpless baby to a functionally independent, autonomous individual as an instance of acquisition of context specific skills (Fischer 1980). Skills referred to "the performance of any task which, for its successful and rapid completion, requires an improved organisation of responses making use of only those aspects of the stimulus which are essential to satisfactory performance" (Ribeaux and Poppleton 1978, p. 53).

Within this skill oriented paradigm, competence was regarded as the fit between the specific aspects of the environment with the particular skills in the individual for the execution of the task (Fischer 1980, Harter 1978, 1980, Lafromboise and Rowe 1983, Schein 1976). In addition, researchers specified the nature of the various kinds of skills relevant to a particular context. Within the managerial context, Schein (1976) stated that three kinds of skills were necessary for competent behaviour. They were the interpersonal skills, analytical skills and managerial skills. Harter (1978, 1980) also identified three kinds of skills not very different from those of Schein. These were cognitive, interpersonal and motor skills. Thus broadly, competence from a skill oriented framework referred to problem solving abilities in specific contexts (Fischer 1980).

The second major trend in the competence research did not emphasize the acquisition of skills as much as it did the manner in which people coped with the task demands in the environment (Barthe, Schinke and Maxwell 1983, Billings and Moos 1984, Hall 1972, Kroeber 1966, McCrae 1984, Murphy 1970, Phillips and Strohmer 1983, Shinn, Rosario, Morch and Chestnut 1984, Stone and Neale 1984. Kroeber (1966) defined coping as an ego process "which is

flexible, purposive, involving choice, pulled
toward future and oriented to the reality require-
ments of the present situation". He differentiated
between the coping and the defensive functions of
the ego. Coping processes were characterized by
effective focussed functioning aimed directly at
solving the problem. Murphy (1970) viewed coping
as a process through which an individual comes to
terms with a challenge or makes use of an opportu-
nity. She stated that the drive toward mastery
underlies all coping efforts and is expressed by
them. According to these definitions, a strategy
was labelled as coping behaviour only if it satis-
fied certain criteria, such as adaptation to reality
                1965,
(Haan /1977). Coping, within this framework, implied
managing or succeeding, whereas not coping implied
failure (Folkman 1984).

Later approaches conceptually separated coping
efforts from their outcomes because they felt that
"when coping is confounded with outcome, any use of
coping as a predictor is tautological and meaning-
less" (Folkman 1984, p. 844). Within this broader
framework, coping referred to "efforts to manage
demands regardless of the success of those efforts"
(Folkman 1984, p. 43). It implied cognitive and
behavioural strategies to master, reduce or tolerate
the demands created by stressful transactions with
the environment. Coping was conceived of as the

person's way of dealing with the actual external or objective situation (Hock and Clinger 1980). According to Stone and Neale (1984), coping behaviours referred to "those behaviours and thoughts which are consciously used by an individual to handle or control the effects of anticipating or experiencing a stressful situation" (Stone and Neale 1984, p. 893).

Within this general context, the repertoire of "effective" coping behaviour constituted "an awareness and use of appropriate resources, a knowledge about participation in the world of work and the ability to integrate planfulness or the extent of planning and executing decisions" (Phillips and Strohmer 1983, pp. 395). Assumptions about effective coping techniques were empirically verified in a number of situations by various researchers (Beutell and Greenhaus 1983, Gray 1983, Hall 1972, Hock and Clinger 1981, Phillips and Strohmer 1983, Stewart 1978,

In a more specific situation affecting working women, Hall (1972) defined three broad types of coping styles. The first type, the "structural role redefinition" was characterized by a deliberate attempt on the part of the individual to alter external, structurally imposed expectations held by others regarding the appropriate behaviour in a

given position (Hall 1972). This type of coping
was indicative of competence as defined by White
(1959) in its strictest sense because the individual
consciously acted upon the environment in order to
possess control over it. The second type of coping
termed "personal role redefinition" entailed chan-
ging one's own expectations as opposed to changing
the expectations of the role senders. Since personal
role redefinition is not accompanied by structural
role redefinition of the demands, it can possibly
be viewed more as a defense than a coping process
(Kroeber 1966, Hall 1972, Gray 1983). The third
type of coping defined as "reactive role behaviour"
was characterized by no attempt to change the struc-
tural or the personal definition of one's roles.
Implicit in this coping style was the belief that
one's role demands were unchangeable and that the
person's main task was to fulfill them. This involved
a rather passive orientation toward one's roles.

Hall's conceptualizations of the three types
of coping styles were effectively utilised by other
researchers also (Beutell and Greenhaus 1983, Gray
1983). Based on Hall's (1972) formulations,
Driscoll (1981) postulated the proactive coping
styles, characterized by changing the expectations
of others, and the reactive coping styles, charac-
terized by changing one's own expectations or pass-
ively meeting all expectations. Hall's (1972)

conception of the three types of coping strategies provided useful framework for viewing competence for this study.

2. Experientially Related Definition of Competence as a Sense of Self-Efficacy

White (1959, 1960) postulated that people operated in their environments in a manner that generated feelings of mastery. He coined the term "sense of competence" to describe the cumulative feelings of confidence and competence acquired by the individual from repeatedly and successfully mastering the environment. Thus the term "sense of competence" referred to a generalized belief in one's own ability to interact effectively with the environment (Felson 1984, Gurin 1982, Sekaran and Wagner 1980). These subjective feelings of competence developed as a consequence of past successes and failures. They were defined as the cumulative product of one's history of efficacies and inefficacies (White 1960). According to Bandura self-efficacy beliefs referred to "judgements about how well one can organize and execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations containing many ambiguous, unpredictable and often unsuccessful elements" (1982, p. 123). Efficacy appraisal implied an inferential process that involved weighting the relative contribution of many factors such as self-perceptions of ability, task difficulty,

effort expended etc. According to Bandura (1977, 1978, 1982, 1983), these self-efficacy beliefs also represented future environmental consequences. They did so by determining whether coping behaviour would be initiated, how much effort would be expended and for how long would the effort be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences (Bandura and Cervone 1983, Bandura and Schunk 1983, Locke, Frederick and Bobko 1984, Saltzer 1982, Schunk 1981, 1982, 1983). It was found that higher the self-efficacy, the greater was the sustained involvement in the activities and subsequent achievement (Felson 1984, Lent, Brown and Larkin 1984, Locke, Frederick and Bobko 1984, Morse 1976, Saltzer 1982). Ability judgements were defined as self-referenced percepts of one's own efficacy. The subjective experience of gaining mastery or insight was referred to as the "sense of competence" (Jagacinski and Nicholls 1984, Nicholls 1976, 1978, 1979).

According to Bandura, self-efficacy beliefs varied along three dimensions (Bandura 1977, 1978, 1982). These beliefs differed along the magnitude dimension. This implied ordering the task along the level of difficulty. It was postulated that the efficacy expectations of individuals would vary depending on the perception of tasks as simple or hard together with an evaluation of the self's perceived adequacy to perform the task. The second

dimension on which the self-efficacy beliefs varied
was the generality versus specificity dimension.
It meant the person's perception of his or her own
ability to cope with restricted or a wide variety
of situational challenges. The third dimension on
which the self-efficacy expectations were believed
to vary was the strength dimension. This implied
the degree of strength or weakness of the efficacy
expectations. It was postulated that weak self-
efficacy expectations would get extinguished at the
slightest evidence of failure while the strong ones
would persist despite it. A fourth dimension not
stated by Bandura but central to White's (1959,
1960) conception of the "sense of competence" was
the dimension of active versus passive control.
This referred to an individuals experiences of
efficacy through ability to control the environment
instead of being controlled by it (Johnston 1974,
Folkman 1984, Stone and Neale 1984).

These four dimensions of self-efficacy formed
the basis of defining a global sense of self-
efficacy in carrying out successful transactions
with the environment. It was postulated that the
beliefs in one's own ability to carry on successful
transactions with the environment formed a powerful
mediator between the environmental demands and the
subsequent effectance over them (Bandura 1977, 1978,

1982, Kirsch 1982, Manning and Wright 1983, Saltzer 1982).

Recently, researchers have extended the self-efficacy theory to work experiences (Betz and Hackett 1981, Hackett and Betz 1981, Morse 1976, Sekaran and Wagner 1980). Sex differences were found with regard to traditional versus non-traditional fields with women reporting greater self-efficacy than men for traditionally feminine fields and lower self-efficacy than men for traditionally masculine occupations (Betz and Hackett 1981, Hackett and Betz 1981). Although not exploring self-efficacy concept as such, Hollinger (1983) found that self-estimates of career-relevant abilities were related to types of career aspirations.

V. FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

In order to understand how work experiences were incorporated by working women in their self-systems, two questions were raised. First, what were the defining characteristics of women who perceived work as an important aspect of their adult life in comparison to those for whom work was relatively peripheral? Secondly, how did women reconcile their work experiences, salient or secondary, with the acceptance of their femininity, an aspect apparently antithetical to the agentic work world? These queries were integrated within a systematic framework where work-identity and gender-identity were proposed as two key concepts in understanding

the work experiences of women. These formed the independent variables of our study.

A. Independent Variables

1. Work-Identity

Work-identity was defined as the differentiated sub-system of the self which concerned itself with work experiences. Having emphasized the hierarchical organization of the self-concept (Epstein 1973, 1981, Shavelson and Bolus 1982), it followed that the question of relative importance of work as compared to the other aspects of the self-system be considered also. As already stated, the ways in which women construed their work experiences depended upon the importance of the work-identity in defining oneself. One could safely assert that women for whom work-identity was peripheral would organize their work experience differently when compared to those for whom work-identity was central.

2. Gender-Identity

Gender-identity was defined as the differentiated sub-system which concerned itself with processing gender experiences. Gender-identity in women was proposed as an important variable for understanding the work experiences because traditionally it was perceived as contradictory to the expectations associated with work outside home. The integration

of the two apparently contradictory sub-identities within the overall sense of identity, provided the base for women's anticipation of their own legitimacy to work.

B. Moderating Variable - Permeable Boundaries

In addition, permeability was proposed as a moderating variable influencing the nature of the relationship between the two sub-identities, namely, work and gender. The relative openness and closedness of the sub-systems affected this crucial integration in providing associative networks for providing meanings to the work and home related experiences. Thus, the degree of permeability-impermeability of boundaries between sub-systems was considered as a significant moderating variable to be included in the study.

With work-identity and gender-identity as independent variables and permeability as a moderating factor, it was conjectured that different statuses of each of these variables would collectively affect the experiences of working women. Within this framework, it became possible to identify a number of groups which differed among themselves in assigning meanings to work. If each of these variables were assigned two levels, theoretically eight variations were possible. They were women with

a) High work-identity, high gender-identity, permeable self-systems.

b) High work-identity, high gender-identity, impermeable self-systems.

c) High work-identity, low gender-identity, permeable self-systems.

d) High work-identity, low gender-identity, impermeable self-systems.

e) Low work-identity, high gender-identity, permeable self-systems.

f) Low work-identity, high gender-identity, impermeable self-systems.

g) Low work-identity, low gender-identity, permeable self-systems.

h) Low work-identity, low gender-identity, impermeable self-systems.

Since it was not practical to work with all the groups simultaneously, three major categories of working women were identified for the study. These groups were specially selected on the basis of the case study data available on them (Kumar 1984). These were:

Group I - High gender-identity, high work-identity, impermeable self-systems (Type I women).

Group II - High gender-identity, high work-identity, permeable self-systems (Type II women).

Group III - High gender-identity, subsumed work-identity with poor definition of boundaries within the self-system.

C. Dependent Variables

It was postulated that these three groups of women,
once identified, would differ on levels of competence.
Going beyond the skill conception of competence to a
more comprehensive framework in which control and manage-
ment of environment was central, this research study
chose to underscore the effectance over environment as a
better indicator of effective coping in women. Styles
of coping elaborated by Hall (1972), were considered to
represent graduated control of environment and self
dimension. In continuation with the effort to operation-
alize the dependent variable of competence, this study
assessed the related self-efficacy beliefs of women.
Thus the dependent measures expected to define differen-
ces between the three types of women selected for the
group were broadly two—the coping styles and the levels
of self-efficacy as moderated by the permeability
variable.

D. Other Variables

Being a preliminary study of its kind, it was
considered desirable that some other related variables
be included, not only as control factors, but more for
their indirect influence on the meaningfulness provided
by these to the dependent variables. All coping beha-
viours were context based. Defining characteristics of
the context in terms of the presence or absence of role
strains, a general feeling of comfort with their jobs

and the existence of support networks were deemed to be of overall utility in making meaningful statements of women's coping effectiveness.

Summing up, this study proposed to investigate the coping styles and the subsequently generated beliefs of self-efficacy in the three types of married working women varying on the dimensions of work and gender identities and levels of permeability of boundaries. Also observed were the nature of differences in the perceptions of role strains, feelings of comfort with their jobs and the support networks available to these women. It was conjectured that an examination of these variables would provide a meaningful picture of the life styles of women who were both married and worked at a job outside the home.

E. Hypotheses

The following general hypotheses were formulated for the study.

1. Coping Styles

(a) Type I women would state that

(i) they used reactive role behaviour as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used structural role redefinition.

(ii) they used reactive role behaviour as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used personal role redefinition.

(iii) they used personal role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used structural role redefinition.

(b) Type II women would state that

(i) they used structural role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used personal role redefinition.

(ii) they used structural role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used reactive role behaviour.

(iii) they used personal role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used reactive role behaviour.

(c) Type III women would state that

(i) they used personal role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used structural role redefinition.

(ii) they used personal role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used reactive role behaviour.

(iii) they used structural role redefinition as a coping strategy significantly more often than they used reactive role behaviour.

2. Sense of Competence

(a) Generality

(i) Type I women would be significantly

lower than Type II women on the generality dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(ii) Type I women would be significantly lower than Type III women on the generality dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(iii) Type II women would be significantly higher than Type III women on the generality dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(b) Magnitude

(i) Type I women would be significantly lower than Type II women on the magnitude dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(ii) Type I women would be significantly higher than Type III women on the magnitude dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(iii) Type II women would be significantly higher than Type III women on the magnitude dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(c) Strength

(i) Type I women would be significantly lower than Type II women on the strength dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(ii) Type I women would be significantly higher than Type III women on the strength dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(iii) Type II women would be significantly

higher than Type III women on the strength dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(d) Active Control

(i) Type I women would be significantly lower than Type II women on the active control dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(ii) Type I women would be significantly lower than Type III women on the active control dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

(iii) Type II women would be significantly higher than Type III women on the active control dimension of self-efficacy beliefs.

3. Other Variables

(a) Role Strains

(i) Type I women would experience significantly more role strains than Type II women in managing dual role expectations.

(ii) Type I women would experience significantly less role strains than Type III women in managing dual role expectations.

(iii) Type II women would experience significantly less role strains than Type III women in managing dual role expectations.

(b) Feelings of Comfort

(i) Type I women would experience significantly less comfort with their jobs than Type II women.

(ii) Type I women would experience signi-
ficantly more comfort with their jobs than
Type III women.

(iii) Type II women would experience signi-
ficantly more comfort with their jobs than
Type III women.

(c)   Support Networks

(i) Type I women would form significantly
less support networks than Type II women to
share the responsibilities of the dual role
expectations.

(ii) Type I women would form significantly
less support networks than Type III women to
share the responsibilities of dual role expecta-
tations.

(iii) Type II women would form significantly
more support networks than Type III women to
share the responsibilities of dual role expecta-
tions.

The next chapter reports the procedures followed to
test these hypotheses.

Chapter 2

Procedures

The questions raised in the preceding chapter were as follows: when classified on the basis of salience of work identity and its relationship to gender identity, how do different groups of married working women cope with multiple task demands and experience a feeling of self-efficacy. For the present investigation, women were classified into three major types:

Type I   women with differentiated work and gender identities and a "rigid" or "closed" self-system.

Type II   women with differentiated work and gender identities and a "permeable" or "open" self-system.

Type III   women with a secondary work-identity, a salient gender-identity and a "permeable" or "open" self-system.

In addition, competence was operationalised in of coping styles used to handle multiple task demands and terms   of experiences of self-efficacy. It was conjectured that the process of coping would be related to the differential experiences of self-efficacy in these three types of women.

I.   SAMPLE

A.   Subjects

Married women, working in various public and private enterprises of Kanpur, Ghaziabad and Delhi were

contacted for the study. Information about these married
working women was secured through various people coming from
different occupations. Some women were contacted by the
snowball technique of sampling i.e. by asking the sub-
jects to suggest some other women who could be included
in the study. All in all about one hundred and thirty-
five women, covering a range of occupations such as
medical doctors and nurses, school teachers and lecturers
from colleges, bank officers and bank clerks, adminis-
trative officers and clerks in government services,
executives in private firms, technicians in various
industries, telephone operators, engineers and designers,
police women and the library personnel were considered
for the study. A woman was included in the sample only
if she was (a) between twentyfive and thirtyfive years
of age, (b) married and living with her husband, (c)
with one child atleast and (d) with a minimum of three
years of work experience.

Ninety-three women out of the list of one hundred
and thirtyfive were initially contacted. The rest were
screened out on the basis of the criteria mentioned above.

B. Selection of the Sample

From the information available through various
sources, ninety-three women were short listed on the
basis of the criteria mentioned above. This information
was verified before proceeding with the interview. Only
those women who were willing to participate in the study

were interviewed. They were assured professional confidentiality and anonymity. They were also told that their responses would not be used for any other purpose but that of research. The fact that only group results would be reported in the final report was conveyed to them.

Seventyfive women, out of the ninetythree who were short listed on the basis of the demographic criteria participated in the study. Each one of the seventyfive women was interviewed extensively and was administered the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). Out of these seventy-five, sixty-two women who distinctly belonged to any of the three categories and also who had moderate to high femininity score on the BSRI were selected for further probing. All the women, except nineteen stated that they belonged to nuclear families and all came from urban backgrounds. These selected sixty-two women possessed a minimum qualification of having completed high school or an equivalent exam. Table 1 presents the relevant demographic information regarding these sixtytwo women.

II. MEASURES

A. The Work Identity Interview Schedule (Appendix-Ai)

A semi-structured interview schedule was prepared to elicit data on the salience and permeability of work identity within the encompassing self identity.

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE THREE TYPES OF WOMEN

		TYPE I N = 21	TYPE II N = 22	TYPE III N = 19
Average age		30.76 years	31.41 years	30.53 years
Average years of experience		7.93 years	8.18 years	7.66 years
Average age of the youngest child		4.27 years	2.83 years	3.83 years
Nuclear family		13	17	13
E D U C A T I O N S	High School and below	0	0	0
	Intermediate	9	0	2
	B.A., B.Sc., B.Tech., LL.B., M.B.B.S.	11	16	11
	M.A., M.Sc., M.Tech. and above	1	6	6
S A L A R Y	Below Rs. 1000/-	12	3	3
	Above Rs. 1000/-	9	19	16
H U S B A N D' S S A L A R Y	Below Rs. 1000/-	5	1	1
	Above Rs. 1000/-	16	21	18
	Number of women in occupations high on social prestige	2	14	11
	Number of women in occupations low on social prestige	19	8	7

With regard to the salience aspect, questions were formulated to assess the career resilience of married working women. The specific questions which were asked were: whether they perceived themselves as working later in life, what would they do in case of their husband's transfer, would they take an out-of-station posting, under what conditions would they consider leaving their jobs, in what ways would they resolve the issues of a choice between their job and their home, at what stage in life did they begin thinking about working and to what extent did they think that the work timings belonged exclusively to work. These questions tested the working women's resistance to career disruption in the face of situations which required rethinking about work and career.

With regard to the factor of permeability of work-identity, the issue was to identify reasons for their work. Was it an externally imposed necessity or did they assign intrinsic value to work in their own scheme of things? Questions were designed to assess the reasons that these married working women gave for working outside the home. The specific questions pertained to the kind of satisfactions derived from work, the importance of money in their decision to take up a job, any additional reasons for working, their plans regarding their progress in their careers and the extent to which they sought new experiences from their work.

In order to get a broad picture of their gender orientation, answers to questions regarding eve-teasing, the importance of education for women, need for women to take up professions and choices between career and marriage for women were also elicited.

B. Measures of Gender Identity (Appendix A-ii)

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem 1974, 1975) was used to assess the gender identity of the women who participated in the study. Gender identity was defined as the gender based way of processing information about the self (Bem 1974). The BSRI consisted of sixty adjectives out of which twenty depicted masculinity, twenty femininity and twenty were neutral in character. Each of these adjectives were assessed on a seven point scale as applying to the self. Separate masculinity and femininity scores were obtained by summing up the ratings on all the adjectives for each of the dimensions. The highest possible score was 140 and the lowest 20 on each of the three dimensions.

C. Measures of Permeability

Besides the initial information obtained from the interview data, independent assessment of permeability was conducted by administering the Embedded Figures Test (EFT) (Witkin et al. 1962). EFT comprised twenty four complex figures divided into two sets of twelve cards each and eight simple figures. Each of

the simple figures was embedded in several different complex figures. Since either set of cards could be administered (Witkin et al 1971), set A was administered to the subjects individually. The Embedded Figures Test, being a perceptual test, the subjects' task on each tried was to locate a previously observed simple figure within a large complex figure which was so organized as to obscure or to embed the sought after simple figure. The total time taken for all the cards was considered to be an indication of perceptual flexibility of the person. The lesser the time taken, indicated more flexibility.

D. Measures of Coping Styles (Appendix A-iii)

Gray's (1983) questionnaire to investigate the coping methods of working women was adapted to suit the requirements of the Indian setting and was used for the present investigation. The questionnaire comprising seventyfour items and one open ended question was divided into four sections. The major sections pertained to information about demographic variables work-identity, role strains, support networks and the types of coping styles. Seventeen likert type questions assessed the stated use of each of the three coping strategies. The three styles of coping were

1) structural role redefinition (SRR) where there was a conscious attempt to alter external situationally imposed expectations held by others.

2) Personal role redefinition (PRR) where the woman changed her own expectations as opposed to changing the expectations of others.

3) Reactive role behaviour (RRB) where there was no attempt to change either the structural or personal definition of one's roles.

The questionnaire also included Likert type of items on the generality dimension of self-efficacy.

E. Measures of Self-Efficacy (Appendix A-iv)

The **Self-Efficacy Task** consisted items adapted from Betz and Hackett's (1981) questionnaire and a shortened version of the Rotter's Internal External Scale. The questionnaire was used to assess the sense of self-efficacy expressed by the three selected groups. The subjects were required to make a list of tasks they performed or would have liked to perform in their office, keeping in view the demands of the home. Against each activity they were required to indicate whether they actually performed the task or not. The measure of magnitude of self-efficacy was obtained from the proportion of the performed activities to the total set of perceived work-related activities. Against each activity, the subjects were also required to rate, on a seven point scale, the confidence they felt in performing it. Strength aspect of self-efficacy was assessed by averaging the confidence ratings of women across all items

indicating performed work-activities. Lastly, active versus passive control orientation was measured through eight yes/no type questions. These eight items were the shortened version of Rotter's internal external scale.

III. PROCEDURES

In order to examine the work-identity of married working women, initially pilot work was carried out on twenty women residing within the I.I.T. campus. A rather comprehensive list of questions was formulated to identify the questions which differentiated women on the conceptualised categories. In addition, the Repertory Grid Technique (Kelly 1955) was also used as a form of semi structured interview to elicit responses on the elements of self, ideal self, masculinity, femininity, work and home. On the basis of this pilot work, only those questions were selected which appeared to differentiate the responses of women on the three categories.

Out of the initial one hundred and thirtyfive married working women, only those women were selected who were (a) between twentyfive and thirtyfive years of age, (b) married and living with their husbands, (c) with atleast one child and (d) with a minimum of three years of work experience.

Each of these seventyfive working women, was interviewed extensively on the basis of the interview schedule and was administered the BSRI in the first meeting. The

the Self-Efficacy Task, prepared through back translation, were available to the women in case they wished to respond in Hindi. Twenty-nine women chose to do so.

Results

In the present chapter analysis of the responses
obtained on the measures used for examining the nature of
differences in the styles of coping and beliefs of self-
efficacy is reported. Within the context of the main aim of
the study, data were analysed for the dual purposes of chec-
king the reliability of measures and testing the hypotheses
of the study. Certain context measures were also analysed
with a view to giving meanings to the network of constructs.

I. RELIABILITY CHECKS

A. Reliabilty of Judges' Classification

Two judges on the basis of interview data assigned
categories to the women in the sample independently.
These judgements were analysed for their correspondence.
The proportion of responses placed in the dominant cate-
gory by the two judges determined the category to which
that particular respondent was finally allocated. In
order to ensure clear cut categorizations, only those
women were considered as belonging to any one of the
three groups for whom the proportion of responses in the
dominant category was above 00.60 as judged separately
by both the judges. In addition, Pearson's product
product moment correlation was computed to assess the

degree of agreement between judges for the three types

of women.   Table 2 shows the classification of women by

the two judges and the degree of agreement between them.

TABLE 2

EACH JUDGE'S PROPORTION OF RESPONSES FOUND IN THE DOMINANT
CATEGORY AND THE AGREEMENT BETWEEN JUDGES FOR EACH OF THE
THREE GROUPS

Category	Judge I	Judge II	Pearson Product Moment Correlation
	0.869	0.819	
	0.928	0.974	
	0.922	0.877	
	0.692	0.793	
	0.882	0.921	
	0.824	0.816	
	0.773	0.889	
	0.923	0.969	
TYPE I	0.857	0.900	0.69**
GROUP	0.870	0.862	df(19)** p < .01
	0.899	0.857	
	0.958	0.829	
	0.864	0.807	
	0.899	0.857	
	0.927	0.854	
	0.842	0.790	
	0.955	0.900	
	0.949	0.968	
	0.885	0.807	
	0.750	0.830	
	0.865	0.811	
	0.983	0.967	
	0.900	0.908	
	0.880	0.865	
	0.846	0.909	
	0.947	0.889	
	0.904	0.936	
	0.960	0.815	
	0.923	0.842	
	0.838	0.846	
TYPE II	0.895	0.900	0.47*
GROUP	0.897	0.930	df(20) p < .05
	0.840	0.902	
	0.925	0.886	

Table 2 (continued)

Category	Judge I	Judge II	Pearson Product Moment Correlation
	0.916	0.886	
	0.800	0.807	
	0.826	0.885	
	0.868	0.811	
	0.885	0.845	
	0.881	0.909	
	0.793	0.771	
	0.857	0.895	
	0.894	0.870	
	0.796	0.760	
	0.955	0.898	
	0.917	0.938	
	0.915	0.816	
	0.842	0.914	
	0.760	0.650	
TYPE III	0.930	0.913	0.56
GROUP	0.730	0.820	df(17)* p < .01
	0.870	0.852	
	0.897	0.860	
	0.941	0.919	
	0.977	0.917	
	0.902	0.891	
	0.929	⌒.889	
	0.829	0.913	
	0.736	0.744	
	0.917	0.857	
	0.920	0.879	
	0.786	0.900	

B.   Further Reliability Checks of Permeability through the Witkin's Embedded Figures Test

One way analysis of variance was computed on the time scores of the EFT for each of the three categories of women. Significant differences were obtained $(F(2, 59) = 6.207, p < .01)$ among these groups.   In addition, using the Neumann Keul method, the mean time

scores obtained on EFT were also compared groupwise.
The analysis revealed that both the Type II ($\overline{X}$ = 119.77)
and Type III ($\overline{X}$ = 129.63) groups scored significantly
lower (p < .01, p < .05 respectively) than the Type I
group ($\overline{X}$ = 169.95) (low time scores indicating greater
flexibility). These findings corresponded to the
researcher's assessments of permeability obtained from
the interview data. One assumed on the basis of these
checks that the Type II and Type III women did not vary
significantly on the factor of permeability between sub-
identities. Tables 3A and 3B show the results of the
EFT scores for the three categories of women.

TABLE 3A

ANOVA OF THE TIME SCORES ON EFT FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF
WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	29884.8594	2	14942.4297	6.207**
Within groups	142026.25	59	2407.2246	

df (2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 3B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES
OF WOMEN ON THE EFT

	Type II	Type III	Type I
Means	119.77	129.63	169.95
Type II		9.86	50.18**
Type III			40.32*
Type I			

**p < .01,   *p < .05

II. ANALYSIS OF THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

A. Factor-Analysis of the Coping Styles Questionnaire

The Coping Styles Questionnaire was subjected to the principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation in order to find out the underlying orthogonal dimensions of the coping styles scale. Three significant factors were extracted which explained a total variance of 66.9%. These three factors were the same as the three styles of coping already postulated for the purposes of the study, thereby providing a useful check on the validity of the questionnaire. Factor I represented "reactive role behaviour", factor II represented "personal role redefinition" and factor III represented "structural role redefinition". Table 4 shows the results of the principal axis factor analysis of the Coping Styles Questionnaire.

TABLE 4

RESULTS OF THE PRINCIPAL AXIS FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE COPING STYLES SCALE WITH VARIMAX ROTATION

Item No.	Item	Factor Loading
	FACTOR I – REACTIVE ROLE BEHAVIOUR	
1	What type of outside help do you take for household tasks	-.80
2	You keep your home and office problems/responsibility totally separate i.e. you never bring your work problems home or home problems to the office	.73

Table 4 (continued)

Item No.	Item	Factor Loading
3	Do you attempt to meet all of work and home demands by doing what is expected of you	.83
4	Do you try to solve all your problems without taking assistance from others	.76
5	You deal with problems as they occur, you have no set priorities about which role comes first	.75
6	Do you feel that you have sacrificed **many** of your personal interests as there is simply no time to do everything	.75

FACTOR II - PERSONAL ROLE REDEFINITION

1	Do you feel that the responsibility of looking after your family and home is entirely your own and that your family should not have to assist you with household tasks	.73
2	You would much rather compromise on your office demands than not do what is expected of you at home	.89
3	You often find yourself thinking of your husband or your children in the middle of an important work assignment	.78
4	You have given up trying to meet all that is expected of you and you hope that people accept the fact that you are too busy to do everything well	.81
5	You are not very organized and simply hope that the essential things will get done somehow	.71
6	You have eliminated a set of office activities because you felt that you could not handle so many different demands on your time	.66

FACTOR III - STRUCTURAL ROLE REDEFINITION

1	If it is essential you do not hesitate or feel guilty in asking your husband to do tasks which are essentially considered to be that of a wife	.69
2	Do you organize your activities for the day very carefully	.73

Table 4 (continued)

Item No.	Item	Factor Loading
3	You feel that it is important for you to perform all roles according to your own standards of excellence	.82
4	You are constantly aware of the possible conflicts that may arise between home and office demands and are looking for better ways to resolve them	.76
5	You have reduced standards within certain home tasks	.62

B. Analysis of Self-Stated Use of Coping Styles

Analysis was done for each of the three groups of women separately in order to assess which out of the three coping styles selected for the study was maximally used by them.

1. Type I Women

One way analysis of variance, repeated measures indicated that there were significant differences $(F (2, 42) = 31.83, p < .01)$ between the three types of coping strategies. Multiple comparison of the mean scores, using the Neumann-Keul method, revealed that the "personal role redefinition" $(\bar{X} = 58.487)$ and the "reactive role behaviour" $(\bar{X} = 55.3337)$ as coping strategies were stated to be used significantly more often $(p < .01)$ than the "structural role redefinition" $(\bar{X} = 36.2988)$. There was no significant difference between the

use of "personal role redefinition" and "reactive
role behaviour" a. coping strategies. The results
partially supported hypothesis 1a of the study.
Tables 5A and 5B show the results of the scores on
the three styles of coping as used by the Type I
group.

TABLE 5A

ANOVA REPEATED MEASURES OF THE SCORES ON THE THREE STYLES OF
COPING AS USED BY THE TYPE I WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between people	4.98	20		
Within people	22.3405	42		
Treatment	13.72	2	6.86	31.83**
Residual	8.62	40	0.2155	

df (2, 40)   **p < .01

TABLE 5B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS OF THE THREE TYPES OF COPING
STRATEGIES AS USED BY THE TYPE I WOMEN

	Structural Role Redefinition	Reactive Role Behaviour	Personal Role Redefinition
Means	36.2988	55.3337	58.487
Structural role redefinition		19.0349**	22.1882**
Reactive role behaviour			3.1533
Personal role redefinition			

**p < .01

2. Type II Women

Results of one way analysis of variance repeated measures revealed significant differences $(F (2, 44) = 76.49, p < .01)$ between the three types of coping styles as stated to be used by the Type II women. A comparison of the group means using the Neumann-Keul method further supported this. The "structural role redefinition" ($\overline{X} = 63.8305$) as a coping strategy was used significantly more often $(p < .01)$ than the "personal role redefinition" ($\overline{X} = 48.562$) or the "reactive role behaviour" ($\overline{X} = 20.8515$) as coping strategies. In addition, the "personal role redefinition" was stated to be used significantly more often $(p < .01)$ than the "reactive role behaviour" style of coping. The results supported the hypothesis 1b of the study. Tables 6A and 6B show the ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores of the styles of coping stated to be used by the Type II group.

TABLE 6A

ANOVA REPEATED MEASURES OF THE SCORES ON THE THREE TYPES OF COPING STYLES AS USED BY THE TYPE II WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between people	6.633	21		
Within people	54.9697	44		
Treatment	43.14	2	21.57	76.49**
Residual	11.83	42	0.282	

df (2, 42)   **p < .01

TABLE 6B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES OF THE THREE TYPES OF
COPING STYLES AS USED BY THE TYPE II GROUP

	Reactive Role Behaviour	Personal Role Redefinition	Structural Role Redefinition
Means	20.8515	40.562	63.8305
Reactive role behaviour		19.7105**	42.979**
Personal role redefinition			23.2685**
Structural role redefinition			

**$p < .01$

3. Type III Women

Again, one way analysis of variance repeated
measures revealed that the Type III women were
significantly difrerent (F (2, 36) = 38.62, p < .01)
in their stated use of one style over the other two.
Multiple comparison of the mean scores, using the
Neumann-Keul method, indicated that "personal role
redefinition" ($\overline{X}$ = 58.3555) as a coping strategy
was used significantly more often (p < .01, p < .05
respectively) than "reactive role behaviour"
($\overline{X}$ = 31.8388) or "structural role redefinition"
($\overline{X}$ = 41.5071) as coping strategies. The findings
partially confirmed hypothesis 1c of the study.
Tables 7A and 7B show the ANOVA and the multiple

comparison of mean scores of the stated styles of coping by the Type III women.

TABLE 7A

ANOVA REPEATED MEASURES OF THE SCORES ON THE THREE TYPES OF COPING STYLES AS USED BY THE TYPE III WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between people	9.532	18		
Within people	27.848	38		
Treatment	19	2	9.5	38.62**
Residual	8.848	36	0.246	

df (2, 36)   **$p < .01$

TABLE 7B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ON THE THREE TYPES OF COPING STRATEGIES AS USED BY THE TYPE III GROUP

	Reactive Role Behaviour	Structural Role Redefinition	Personal Role Redefinition
Means	31.8388	41.5071	58.3555
Reactive role behaviour		9.6683	26.5167**
Structural role redefinition			16.85**
Personal role redefinition			

**$p < .01$

C. Analysis of Sense of Self-Efficacy

1. Generality

One way analysis of variance indicated that there were significant differences (F (2, 59) = 20.000, p < .01) between the three categories of women on the dimension of generality. Multiple comparison of mean scores showed that the Type II women ($\bar{X}$ = 8.1818) scored significantly higher (p < .05, p < .01 respectively) than the Type III ($\bar{X}$ = 7.4211) and the Type I ($\bar{X}$ = 5.9524) women. Also, Type III women were significantly higher (p < .01) than the type I women. The results confirmed hypothesis 2a of the study. Tables 8A and 8B show the ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores of the three categories of women on the generality dimension of sense of self-efficacy.

TABLE 8A

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON THE GENERALITY DIMENSION OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	54.8207	2	27.4104	
				20.001**
Within groups	80.8567	59	1.3705	

df(2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 8B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON THE GENERALITY DIMEN-
SION OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

	Type I	Type III	Type II
Means	5.9524	7.4211	8.1818
Type I		1.4687**	2.229**
Type III			0.7607*
Type II			

**$p < .01$,   *$p < .05$

2. Magnitude

One way analysis of variance revealed no
significant differences on the magnitude of dimen-
sion of the sense of self-efficacy between the
three categories of women. Since the analysis of
variance did not reject the null hypothesis of no
difference, further analysis by the Neumann-Keul
method was abandoned. Table 9 shows the ANOVA of
the scores on the magnitude dimension of self-
efficacy for the three categories of women.

TABLE 9

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON THE MAGNITUDE DIMENSION FOR THE
THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	0.3228	2	0.1614	3.33
Within groups	2.8573	59	0.0484	

3. Strength

One way analysis of variance revealed significant differences ($F_{(2, 59)} = 8.816$, $p < .01$) on the strength dimension of self-efficacy. On the Neumann-Keul multiple comparison of means, the Type II women ($\overline{X} = 5.9482$) were significantly higher ($p < .01$) than the Type I women ($\overline{X} = 5.0824$) or the Type III women ($\overline{X} = 4.9258$). The Type I women also scored higher ($p < .01$) than the Type III women. The findings confirmed hypothesis 2c of the study. Tables 10A and 10B show the ANOVA and the multiple comparison of the mean scores of the three categories of women on the strength dimension of self-efficacy.

TABLE 10A

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON THE STRENGTH DIMENSION OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	12.7909	2	6.3954	8.816**
Within groups	42.8018	59	0.7255	

df (2, 59)   **$p < .01$

TABLE 10B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON THE STRENGTH DIMENSION OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR THE THREE GROUPS OF WOMEN

	Type III	Type I	Type II
Means	4.9258	5.0824	5.9482
Type III		0.1566**	1.0224**
Type I			0.8658**
Type II			

**$p < .01$

4. Active Control

One way analysis of variance revealed significant differences ($F_{(2, 59)} = 24.606$, $p < .01$) on the scores of active control dimension for the three categories of women. Further, multiple comparison of the mean scores using the Neumann-Keul method showed that the Type II women ($\bar{X} = 14.1364$) were significantly higher ($p < .05$, $p < .01$ respectively) than the type III women ($\bar{X} = 12.7895$) or the Type I women ($\bar{X} = 10.3333$). The findings confirmed hypothesis 2d of the study. Tables 11A and 11B show the ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores on the strength dimension of self-efficacy for the three categories of women.

TABLE 11A

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON THE ACTIVE CONTROL DIMENSION OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	158.8265	2	79.4133	
				24.606**
Within groups	190.4155	59	3.2274	

df (2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 11B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON THE ACTIVE CONTROL
VERSUS PASSIVE ORIENTATION DIMENSION FOR THE THREE GROUPS
OF WOMEN

	Type I	Type III	Type II
Means	10.3333	12.7895	14.1364
Type I		2.4562**	3.8031**
Type III			1.3469*
Type II			

$**p < .01$ $*p < .05$

III. ANALYSIS OF SOME RELATED CONTEXT VARIABLES

With the intent to obtain as complete a work picture
of the three categories of women as possible, data regarding
working women's perceptions of role strains, level of psycho-
logical comfort in holding a full time job, and the exis-
tence of supportive networks were also analysed.

A. Role Strains

One way analysis of variance revealed that the
three categories of women differed significantly
$(F (2, 59) = 5.090, p < .01)$ regarding their percep-
tions of role strains. The multiple comparison of
means (Neumann-Keul method) indicated that the
Type I women ($\bar{X} = 16.6667$) and the Type III women
($\bar{X} = 15.57$) experienced significantly greater ($p < .01$,
$p < .05$) role strains than the Type II women ($\bar{X} =$

13.3182). There were no significant differences in the experiences of role strains between the Type I and Type III women. The results partially supported the hypothesis 3a of the study in anticipating lesser role strains than the other two groups in the Type II women. Tables 12A and 12B show the ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores of the perceptions of role strains by the three categories of women.

TABLE 12A

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON EXPERIENCES OF ROLE STRAINS BY THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	125.6227	2	62.8113	5.090**
Within groups	728.0710	59	12.3402	

df (2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 12B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON EXPERIENCES OF ROLE STRAINS FOR THE THREE GROUPS OF WOMEN

	Type II	Type III	Type I
Means	13.3182	15.5789	16.6667
Type II		2.2607*	3.3485**
Type III			1.0878
Type I			

**p < .01   *p < .05

B. Feelings of Comfort

Regarding their feelings of comfort in working
away from home, one way analysis of variance revealed
significant differences (F (2, 59),= 43.23, p < .01)
between the three categories of women. A comparison of
the mean scores using the Neumann-Keul method indicated
that the Type II women ($\bar{X}$ = 20.1818) expressed signifi-
cantly more comfort (p < .01) than the other two groups
(Type I, $\bar{X}$ = 13.6190, Type III, $\bar{X}$ = 10.7368). Between
the Type I and Type III groups, Type I stated more
(p < .01) feelings of comfort. The findings confirmed
hypothesis 3b of the study. Tables 13A and 13B show the
ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores on
feelings of comfort for the three categories of working
women.

TABLE 13A

ANOVA OF THE SCORES ON FEELINGS OF COMFORT FOR THE THREE
GROUPS OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	975.8326	2	487.9163	
				43.23**
Within groups	665.9093	59	11.2866	

df (2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 13B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ON FEELINGS OF COMFORT
FOR THE THREE GROUPS OF WOMEN

	Type III	Type I	Type II
Means	10.7368	13.6190	20.1818
Type III		2.8822**	9.445**
Type I			6.5628**
Type II			

**p < .01

C.   Support Networks

One way analysis of variance revealed that there
were significant differences (F (2, 59) = 32.843,
p < .01) between the three categories of women regarding
the support networks formed by them to meet the dual
role demands. Again, multiple comparison of   the mean
scores using the Neumann-Keul method revealed that the
Type II women ($\overset{=}{X}$ = 40.2727) formed significantly more
(p < .01) support networks than either of the other
two groups (Type I, $\overline{X}$ = 28.3810, Type III, $\overline{X}$ = 32.3158).
A similar trend was observed by the Type III women who
also sustained more (p < .05) support from outside
than the Type I women. The results confirmed hypo-
thesis 3c of the study. Tables 14A and 14B show the
ANOVA and the multiple comparison of mean scores of the
support networks formed by the three categories of women.

TABLE 14A

ANOVA SCORES ON THE SUPPORT NETWORK FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES
OF WOMEN

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between groups	1580.2561	2	790.1280	32.843**
Within groups	1419.4213	59	24.0580	

df (2, 59)   **p < .01

TABLE 14B

MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ON THE SUPPORT NETWORKS
FOR THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

	Type I	Type III	Type II
Means	28.3810	32.3158	40.2727
Type I		3.9348*	11.8917**
Type III			7.9569**
Type II			

**p < .01   *p < .05

IV. RELATIONSHIP OF MASCULINITY SCORES OBTAINED ON THE BSRI
TO OTHER SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

The following picture emerged with regard to the
relationship of masculinity to other significant variables
when data were analysed on the basis of masculinity scores
obtained on the BSRI. Since all the women who participated
in the study were medium and high on femininity, women

classified as high on masculinity indicated a more andro-
gynous orientation.

A. Masculinity and Femininity

Pearson's product moment correlation between the
scores of masculinity and femininity indicated that
there was practically no correlation (df - 60, r =
0.0024) between the two suggesting that masculinity and
femininity in this group were orthogonal dimensions.

B. Relationship of Masculinity and Medium to High
    Femininity with Other Significant Variables

All women selected for this study fulfilled the
first criteria of selection that they had medium to
high scores on femininity to ensure atleast medium level
of female identity as an independent variable. The
masculine scores of the BSRI were later appended to the
femininity scores on the same measure to see what picture
emerged with this additional information. Since both
masculinity and femininity were orthogonal dimensions, it
was felt that a new set of relationships would enlarge
our portrayals of the three groups. Type II women were
consistently and significantly higher on masculinity
score making them more androgynous than the other two
groups who seemed more feminine in their orientation.
The findings on the basis of this classification were
consistent with those obtained earlier. Table 15 shows
the relationship of masculinity and medium to high femi-
ninity with other significant variables of the study.

TABLE 15

RELATIONSHIP OF MASCULINITY WITH OTHER SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

Variables	High Masculinity	Low Masculinity	t Value
Structural role redefinition coping style	$\bar{X}$ = 2.6475 (SD = 0.550)	$\bar{X}$ = 1.9750 (SD = 0.812)	3.84**
Personal role redefinition coping style	$\bar{X}$ = 2.4056 (SD = 0.793)	$\bar{X}$ = 2.9427 (SD = 0.612)	-2.97**
Reactive role behaviour coping style	$\bar{X}$ = 1.3578 (SD = 0.721)	$\bar{X}$ = 2.1870 (SD = 0.738)	-4.47**
Generality of self-efficacy	$\bar{X}$ = 0.8438 (SD = 1.019)	$\bar{X}$ = 6.5000 (SD = 1.614)	3.95**
Magnitude of self-efficacy	$\bar{X}$ = 0.7331 (SD = 0.165)	$\bar{X}$ = 0.6900 (SD = 0.171)	1.01 NS
Strength of self-efficacy	$\bar{X}$ = 5.7091 (SD = 0.825)	$\bar{X}$ = 4.9507 (SD = 0.937)	3.39**
Active control of self-efficacy	$\bar{X}$ = 13.1875 (SD = 2.101)	$\bar{X}$ = 11.6333 (SD = 2.456)	2.68**
Role strains	$\bar{X}$ = 13.8125 (SD = 3.780)	$\bar{X}$ = 16.5667 (SD = 3.181)	-3.09**
Feelings of comfort	$\bar{X}$ = 17.5313 (SD = 4.886)	$\bar{X}$ = 12.3000 (SD = 3.816)	4.68**
Support networks	$\bar{X}$ = 38.4688 (SD = 4.635)	$\bar{X}$ = 28.8333 (SD = 5.559)	7.43**

V. ANALYSIS OF THE OCCUPATIONS OF THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN WITH REGARD TO SOCIAL PRESTIGE

Five post-graduate students in psychology independently rated the occupations of all married working women participating in the study on a five point scale in terms of social prestige. On the basis of average ratings, ten levels of occupations were identified. For the sake of computation, these ten levels of occupations were further categorized into occupations high on social prestige versus those low on social prestige. X^2 analysis of the data indicated that the three categories of women differed significantly ($X^2(2) =$ 16.263, p .01) in their choice of occupations in terms of the social prestige of the occupation.

VI. PROFILE SKETCHES OF THE THREE CATEGORIES OF WOMEN

A. Type I Women

High Work-Identity, Medium to High Gender-Identity, Impermeable Self-Systems

Impressionistic accounts obtained from the interview data indicated that the Type I women appeared unperturbed by the idea of situational changes affecting their job. They entertained the possibility of continuing with their jobs in circumstances of transfer of their husbands or even their own transfer from the city. Quitting a job was only a last option when all other alternatives became unfeasible. They were particular about the time allotted to work and adhered

strictly to the office schedule. Job was perceived as a routine activity which had to be performed. Besides money work offered almost no other satisfactions to these women. They described their daily routine as very hectic with very little time for themselves.

These women endorsed traditional sex role attitudes. A women should not be more educated than her husband. Also, if a woman could afford to stay at home, she should not work outside the home. However, according to them, very few women were "lucky" to get such choices. The times dictated that both the spouses work to contribute to domestic budget. They observed that no matter how successful a woman was in her office, at home it was her husband's prerogative to be the master. With regard to eveteasing, they stated that the girls should not give boys an opportunity to do so. In any case they were better off ignoring small incidents.

From the measures used in the study, following information was obtained. Time scores on the EFT indicated a relatively closed self-system corroborating the classification done on the basis of the interview schedule. The Type I women's responses on the Coping Style Questionnaire indicated that they experienced role strains. Their support networks were sparse. However these women did not feel guilty about working outside the home.

With regard to the coping strategies, the use of personal role redefinition and reactive role behaviour

were observed. They worked very hard in order to manage their jobs along side home activities often managing both singlehandedly. On the Self-Efficacy Task, they displayed strength of efficacy beliefs.

B. Type II Women

High Work-Identity, Medium to High Gender-Identity, Permeable Self-Systems

Impressionistic accounts obtained from the interview data indicated that the Type II women were also accepting of career disruptions. When asked about whether they perceived themselves as working in the future, they unequivocally felt they could see no reasons why they had to stop working. They stated their intention to continue working despite their husband's transfer or their own. Leaving a job was considered only the last alternative. The Type II women were particular about their work schedule. They sought new experiences in work and preferred variety in activities in their day to day functioning. They took new assignments and did not like being favoured on the basis of their gender. Work provided them with feelings of independence and self worth.

They professed more egalitarian attitudes with regard to sex roles. According to them education was as important for girls as for boys. They were encouraged for studies and also for pursuing a profession right from their childhood. When asked about whether women

should work if they had a choice not to work, they stated that work was necessary because it provided a woman with economic independence.

The problem of eveteasing was analysed at the social level. Poor education, low socio-economic levels and rigid parenting were some of the reasons attributed for it. A free interaction between boys and girls was proposed as one of the remedial measures. They stated that women should not succumb to harassment because more than anything else, eveteasing was a violation of a woman's rights.

From the measures used in the study, following information was obtained. Time scores on the EFT indicated a permeable self-system supporting the classification done on the basis of the interview schedule. From the Coping Styles Questionnaire, it was observed that these women felt least guilty in leaving their children behind. This is supported by the information obtained from the interview that they perceived the quality of contact with children superior to the amount of time spent with them. They also experienced the minimal role strains and formed maximal support networks. With regard to coping styles, the use of structural role redefinition was predominant. On the Self-Efficacy Task, the Type II group scored the highest on practically all the dimensions of self-efficacy.

These women because of their above attitudes
toward work were labelled as the "professional working
women".

C. Type III Women

Impressionistic accounts obtained from the inter-
view data indicated that these women presented a diff-
erent profile. They accorded a secondary role to work
in their daily existence. They perceived work more as
a hobby and therefore could give up their jobs if these
started to interfere with their family life. They were
not prepared to continue working in changed circum-
stances such as their husbands' or their own transfers.
Nor were they particular about the time allotted to
work. They stated that they carried some of their home
activities like knitting etc. to their offices. They
knitted in their "free-time". When asked about their
reasons for working, they observed that work was a
hobby and a good way to meet people. Work provided them
with economic independence and earned them respect from
family members and friends.

With regard to attitudes toward women in general,
their orientation was both modern and traditional.
They preferred no discrimination between sexes as far
as education was concerned. However, the purpose of
education for them was to enable a girl to bring up
her children properly. They stated it was not necessary
for a woman to work. Work outside home was an "extra"

for those who could manage it. Marriage or family was given supreme priority over career.

The problem of eveteasing was analysed at a more social level. However, a woman, they said, should take her own precautions to avoid getting into embarassing situations.

From the measures used in the study, following information was obtained. Time scores on the EFT indicated a relatively flexible orientation. This also supported the classification done on the basis of the interview protocol. As gathered from the Coping Styles Questionnaire, they were most uncomfortable about leaving their children in some one else's care. They experienced some role strains and formed some support networks. They used personal role redefinition maximally as compared to the other two types of coping strategies. On the Self-Efficacy Task, they scored higher than the Type I women on the dimensions of generality and active control.

The Type III women because of their low involvement in work were labelled as "past-time working women".

Chapter 4

Discussion

The main focus of the present chapter is to discuss the findings which confirmed and disconfirmed the general hypotheses formulated regarding the coping styles and self-efficacy beliefs of women with two fold responsibility of work and home. The meaningfulness of the findings is discussed in conjunction with other available research in this area.

Broadly speaking, the three groups of women identified on the basis of salience of their work-identity and its integration with gender-identity in particular, and a global sense of identity in general, were indeed found to be different from each other in their competence and self-efficacy beliefs. These groups further differentiated themselves in terms of their perceptions of role strains, feelings of comfort with their jobs and the formation of support networks to manage the dual role responsibility. The differences observed among the three groups were related to theoretical concepts of salient and secondary work-identities and those of permeability of self-system with special emphasis on the relationship of work and gender sub-identities.

I. INTERPRETATION OF SPECIFIC FINDINGS

A. Meaning of Differences in Coping Styles and Self-Efficacy

1. Differences in Coping Styles

The Type I women stated that they used personal role redefinition and reactive role behaviour equally and significantly more often than they used structural role redefinition. Personal role redefinition was characterized by a gender defined way of coping. Reactive role behaviour implied an attempt to fulfill all the demands of work and home. These women performed all the activities of the dual roles without taking assistance from others. They professed the motto "work is work and home is home". They were not planful but they dealt with problems on day-to-day basis. They were inclined to suppress many personal interests due to lack of time available to them.

The Type II women stated that they used structural role redefinition when compared to the other two types of coping strategies. This type of coping style, as indicated earlier, was characterized by active attempts to bring about changes in the demands sent by role senders. High scores on their structural role redefinition style of coping indicated that they confronted their role senders to agree on a revised set of expectations regarding the

two roles. They organized their activities for the day very carefully and were constantly aware of the possible conflicts that could arise between office and home demands. They stated that they actively looked for better ways to resolve these conflicts. Thus they tried to structure their work and home setting as much as possible by redefining the expectations held by others.

The Type III women stated the use of personal role redefinition maximally when compared with the other two types of coping strategies. High scores of the Type III women on personal role redefinition underlined gender defined ways of coping where compromises were in favour of home roles. They stated that they had eliminated a set of office activities because they could not handle many demands on their time. They, thus, displayed poor work ethics. They were also not very systematic in assigning priorities to their routine activities. They functioned predominantly by changing their own perceptions of the work role demands.

Even though all the three categories of women ascribed a central role to their experience of femininity, yet each group stated use of a particular style of coping to "fit" work and gender sub-identities. The Type I women's salient work-identities but closed systems led them to demarcate clear role boundaries. The Type II women with salient

work-identities but open systems reformulated the expectations associated with both the roles in an integrated manner. Finally, the Type III women with work-identities enveloped in the gender-identities coped in the stereotypic gender ways. The Type II women used what seemed like the most efficient coping strategies when compared with the other two groups. The fact that they actively sought changes in the expectations of others was possibly due to their effort to constantly remould the situation. This observation gained support from a related finding wherein Type II women attributed masculine traits to themselves qualifying as androgynous people. Androgynous personality not only indicated a likelihood of flexible structures as was posited earlier in this study, but the masculine orientation also gave them the agentic mode of dealing with the outer demands (Gutmann 1970).

On the whole, the results of the study confirmed the general theoretical assumptions. Hall (1972) observed that internally integrated people in being aware of the valued aspects of their identity used structural role redefinition maximally in comparison to the other two types of coping strategies. Since work and gender formed two differentiated aspects of the self with permeability providing active interaction between the two and the rest of

the self-system, it could possibly be inferred that the Type II women were aware that both work and gender formed valued aspects of their self definition. It was observed that women who attempted to redefine themselves in the context of new experiences were more able to seek instrumental action in coping with the demands (Stewart 1978). These observations were similar to those of Gray (1983) who stated that women who perceived it as a challenge to integrate their career with family responsibilities, used effective ways of solving problems.

It could also be inferred that the permeability of structures, in moderating the nature of sub-systems within the overall self-system defined the degree of psychological differentiation for these three groups of women. Evidence suggests that the level of psychological differentiation of self could also be determinative influence on the choice of coping styles (Driscoll 1981, Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble and Zellman 1978, Gordon and Hall 1974, Hall 1972, Parkes 1984, Welford 1980). Stone and Neale (1984) observed that cognitively well-differentiated, flexible people use more efficient coping strategies by dealing directly with the problem and mobilizing active support from others.

2. Differences in the Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The three categories of women professed differences in feelings of self-efficacy generated through their work and home roles. The Type II women scored the highest and the Type I lowest on the generality dimension of self-efficacy beliefs. It is likely that Type II women were open to experiences from more than one specific arena of functioning. Permeability as a property of the self system was proposed as the underlying dimension to explain this difference in the generality of self-efficacy beliefs. Permeability, by definition, implied the availability of experiences occurring in one sub-system to the other sub-systems of the differentiated self. Thus, when permeable boundaries or open systems are assumed, successful experiences are likely to be absorbed and assimilated by more than one sub-system of the total identity. Additional reinforcement of self-efficacy beliefs takes place in such conditions.

However, despite permeable boundaries, the Type III women scored lower than the Type II women. The difference possibly finds explanation in the inference that successful experiences in work were subsumed under gender sub-system and not independently in the work-identity. On the other hand, the Type III women scored higher than Type I women.

So rigidly defined were the boundaries of sub-system in Type I women that it became difficult for them to integrate successful work experiences in the total self-system. This could be one reason for their lowest scores. There could yet be another reason for this. Type III women stated experiencing feelings of general self-efficacy more than the Type I women. The endorsement of the conventional sex role values could have brought unsolicited positive feedback of their worth and adequacy from external sources. In the absence of concrete data this observation is stated more as a conjecture than a fact.

There were no differences between the three categories of women on the magnitude of self-efficacy. Why this was so was difficult to explain from the data. The findings did not support the hypothesis that the Type II women would score the highest followed by Type I women. It was believed that a differentiated or a salient work-identity would generate more confidence within the individual to perform difficult tasks.

The Type II women again scored the highest on the strength dimension of self-efficacy. The Type I women scored higher than the Type III women. High scores of Type II women on the strength dimension of self-efficacy beliefs implied that these women were confident of their ability to persist in the

face of situational challenges and adversities.
One tends to place this finding in the overall
context of centrality of work identity. These find-
ings are similar to those of Helson (1975) who indi-
cated that women with crystallized work goals
showed stronger self-efficacy beliefs. A central
work-identity can create the capacity to persist
despite difficulties.

The Type II women perceived themselves as
exercising more active control over the environment
when compared with the Type I and Type III women.
They claimed responsibility for the consequences of
their action. They also felt they were in control
of the direction their life was taking. They
trusted their own effort to change circumstances and
conversely depended less on chances occurrences.
Needless to state, this particular orientation was
bound to influence the coping strategies of the
Type II women. Only when one believes in ones
capabilities does one venture to change the outer
environment, and structure the demands of the
external world. One has to have cognition of one's
own abilities in order to exert them. The Type II
women's masculine functioning could also be parti-
ally related to this dimension. They had the
highest masculinity scores. Agentic functioning
implies active control. The Type III women scored

1981). On the basis of our findings, the predictive
utility of self-efficacy also lies in assessing diff-
erences among women in handling their work experiences.
This variable can be a predictor for men as well who
have crossed-sex scores on the BSRI. However, one
needs more empirical base to assert this with confi-
dence.

B. Meaning of Differences in Related Variables

1. Role Strains

The Type I and the Type III women stated that
they experienced a strain in trying to fulfill both
career and home expectations. They felt there was
little time to spend on other personal interests and
hobbies. A possible explanation was that the Type I
women found it difficult to compromise on either set
of role demands. Both sub-identities were salient
in the self-system. A closed system hindered the
integration of the demands associated with the dual
role often leading them to perceive the tasks dis-
cretely. The relevance of these findings were
congruent with the coping styles used by these women.
Both the Type I and Type III women appeared to use,
what has been called by Hall (1972), **as passive coping**
strategies. These findings gained support from
Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) who observed that
working women with relatively traditional attitudes
usually met all the expectations associated with

their work and home thus experiencing greater role strains. Type I women's role strains were for different reasons. Rigid attitudes and inflexible coping strategies by their very definition are role strain generators (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble and Zellmann 1978). In addition, Type I women as a group had the lowest salaries in comparison to Type II and Type III women. Financial resources are important in mobilizing the environment for help. To what extent this factor played a part is difficult to assess.

The Type II women experienced the least role strain. They deliberately changed the demands of others and sought active help from them in managing the dual role responsibilities. Gray (1983) indicated that role strains were perceived as a consequence of the ways in which women resolved the expectations of role senders. Two possible explanations for lowered role strains were the selectivity in fulfilling the demands and seeking active help from others.

2. Feelings of Comfort

Regarding feelings of comfort in transgressing the conventional gender boundaries through work, the Type III women felt least comfortable in working outside home. They felt anxious and guilty in not spending enough time with their children. They

held the belief that woman's employment had negative effect on child's development. For women such as those in Type III, the maternal role provided the greatest setback in their progress in a career. Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble and Zellman (1978) supported this observation, namely, that pursuit of work outside home specially when children were young interfered with the primary child rearing responsibility. Women with traditional sex role attitudes were more uncomfortable with their jobs than women with androgymous orientation.

The fact that Type I women felt less uncomfortable than Type III women, even though both were characterized as possessing strong sex-typed personality is significant and supportive of our other assumptions regarding these two types. Rigidity of sub-structure boundaries of the self, it was conjectured, would facilitate spread of tension generated in one sub-system to another. Work tensions were contained in that arena by the Type I women. Kumar (1984) who has labelled them as "existential women" noted that many of the women in her case studies had started to work while young. They had seen other women, if not their own mothers work to augment the family income. Rigid boundaries worked as enabling these women to live with the contradictions in their cognitive schemas. Therefore, though these women endorsed tradition beliefs about women's role,

marriage and were gender typed, work as such did not
contradict their perceptions of self. The Type II
women felt most comfortable in working outside home
as it provided an opportunity for self-expression.
It appeared as if they expanded their self-defini-
tion to include components of both masculinity and
femininity. Possibly they integrated the demands of
the two roles within a unified sense of identity.

3. Support Networks

The Type II women formed significantly greater
support networks than either the Type I or the
Type III women. They received greater active support
from their husbands to manage their dual role respon-
sibilities. They were encouraged by their families
to pursue a career right from childhood. They
perceived their neighbours and colleagues at work
as helpful to them. The Type III women indicated
greater support networks than Type I women. One
possible explanation was that the rigidity in
Type I women masked the problem for cognitive solu-
tions but not enough for masking discomfort in
feelings. The Type III women possibly coped through
their feminine orientation of passive dependency on
others and not through active involvement in
changing the externals.

In brief, the findings of the study indicated
that women with salient work-identities and permeable

boundaries handled their work experiences differently
from those with salient work-identities and imper-
meable boundaries or from those with secondary work-
identities and permeable boundaries. The efficient
coping styles, the reduced role strains, adequate
support networks and self initiated actions all led
to the conclusion of their overall competence in
dealing with the world. Under these conditions,
construction of work experiences, proved to be a
powerful variable in categorizing women and predic-
ting their ability to deal with home and work.

II. THE SELF AS A MAJOR THEORETICAL CONSTRUCT

Taking an overall look at the findings and the tentative
explanations given thus far, it appears that difference in
the experiences of the three groups of women were not random
but related to differences in the construction of internal
representations in them. In actively seeking meaning, indivi-
duals systematize internal representations into psychologi-
cally consistent schemas. These schemas are hierarchical,
each having its final reference point in the all subsuming
scheme of self. If patterns of subschema within the self
are discerned, it enables the observer to make predictions
of behaviour with more accuracy than if not (Markus 1977,
Rogers, Kuiper and Kirker 1977). What has been referred to
as the differentiation of self, is the organization of
number of schemas each retaining its **peculiar** identity in the
totality of self-structure.

The genesis of specific schemas lies in the experience of specific events and its transformation as an internal representation. This is followed by classification of the event in a particular psychologically relevant and meaningfully equivalent network of associations. Subsequent experience of an event are selected, channelized and classified by the existing networks. If experiences are more often than not classified by one specific network or a cognitive schema, then this is referred to as salience. It can become a handy predictor of/behaviour. It is these salient cognitive schemas which differentiate and provide complexity to the overall nature of the self-concept.

While salience may provide for more associative networks in the interpretation of relevant information, permeability provides for an active assimilation of an experience by more than one sub-systems of the self. Though the experience of an event may be specific in its context, permeability potentially allows the experience to be processed in other associative networks which logically need not have an apparent or immediate relevance to the context. It is the psychological relationships ascribed by the individual which determines **how many** cognitive schemas will dynamically interact to give a particular event its meaning. The entire gestalt may shift from specific arenas to a broader self-concept. Permeability thus facilitates the dynamic interaction between the various aspects of the self-system.

In a psychologically differentiated individual, various aspects of the self actively participate to give meaning to a particular event. This processing of information as a joint function of the various sub-systems is a continuous process encompassing redefinitions of one's sense of identity. Thus with permeable boundaries, it is as if an active process of abstraction from the experiences of the various aspects is underway seeking continuous redefinition of the question "who am I".

A permeable self-concept comprising several salient sub-structures allows interpretation of experience at multiple levels in the hierarchy while retaining the specific identity of the sub-aspect in which it was generated. On the other hand, an overall self-concept may become more or less congruent with what started as one major sub-structure. It is referred to as the salient sub-identity in the total self-structure. It is these nuances observed in the differentiation of the self-concept which provide insight into women's functioning.

In addition, beliefs of personal efficacy appear inextricably interwoven with the total pattern of experiences occurring within the self-system. A sense of identity about the various sub-aspects, as they are organized within the self-system, provides the reference mechanisms for the perception, evaluation and regulation of one's own performance. According to Bandura (1977), the activation of the self-evaluative processes requires both a knowledge of the perceptual organization of the self and the development of

personal standards for internal comparison. People process and synthesize feedback information from sequences of personally relevant events. It is this synthesis of the feedback information with the already existing schemas, that forms the basis of formulating self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura 1978).

The formulation of self-efficacy beliefs occurs over long intervals and is related to specific situations. An examination of the self-concept as it is organized around its various sub-aspects, facilitates the prediction of self-efficacy beliefs. This is so both in terms of understanding the specific arena in which the beliefs are generated and the extent to which they get absorbed by the total self-system. Bandura (1977) stated that for some, experiences create a circumscribed mastery expectation whereas for others they instill a more generalized sense of self-efficacy extending well beyond the specific situation.

These self-efficacy beliefs are linked with the nature of self-concept on one hand and with behaviour on the other. They serve a self regulatory function that involves weighting the relative contribution of many factors such as self perceptions of ability, task difficulty, effort expended etc. Thus they determine whether coping would be initiated or not.

Thus the findings of the study can be tied up within the dynamic construct of self where variations in the nature of its organization calls for qualitative differences in the individual's **style of construing experiences.**

III. RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

Despite some possible limitations of self-description, the study provided a fairly comprehensive picture of the life styles of married working women. By presenting the constructs of work-identity, gender-identity and permeability in an integrated theoretical framework, it was possible to identify potentially eight groups of married working women, each with a particular status on work and gender identities. Even though this study did not find the inclusion of all eight categories feasible, it has nonetheless set a paradigm for future investigations. As expected, study of those groups of women not considered here would provide a broader basis for comparison of likenesses and differences in the married working women. For instance, in this context particularly relevant   would be to investigate the nature of work experiences as construed by women low on gender-identity, high on work-identity with permeable or impermeable self-systems. This can enable partialling out the roles of the two sub-identities in determining the women's styles of coping, self-efficacy and competence. Obviously, wider generalization would be possible in such circumstances than would be permitted with limited categories.

A closer scrutiny of the three categories of women and the dependent variables seems to suggest some similarity in the personality structure based on Marcia's identity statuses. The Type II women appear similar to the identity achieved ones. The Type III women have something in common

with the foreclosed group. Safeguarding the paradigmatic propositions of the two classifications, it may be of value to assess in detail the identity statuses of women through assessment of ego identity (Kumar 1984).

Even though this study expressedly maintained its focus on women, the issue of gender-identity is by no means limited to the females. Significance of gender-identity is not diminished in males who can vary as much along this continuum as our assessment procedures will permit. Differences in work-identity of males can be conjectured from Marcia's ego identity statuses of the adolescents and young adults. Findings ~~obser-ved~~ Obtained in the women need not hold for men but the theoretical propositions can bear further validity if future studies do not exclude the male population.

However, for the present study the significant issue lies in the unfolding of the developmental perspective encompassing both past experiences and future potentialities. Will these styles of coping with their dual roles persist when these women are ten years older? Will their current experiences take a different turn when pressures from the family roles diminish with children leaving home or becoming self-reliant? Will the dilemmas of the middle age confound with their feelings of self-efficacy? One is as curious to find answers to these queries as one is to probe into their past experiences to identify factors which facilitated differentiation in personality structure or which gave salience to one sub-identity over the other.

The question of external intervention for change of styles is likely to be raised for these women. Does this

theoretical model allow new ways of helping them? Though the
issue is not one of work performance appraisal, it could well
have some relationship to it. Do Type II women perform better
than/other two types in their jobs? If so, to what extent are
   the
their styles of coping and beliefs of self-efficacy related to
it? Though this study did not deal with their efficacy at work,
working women's sub-identities and personality differentiation
need not be ignored in predicting competence in work place.
Women's vertical mobility is likely to be a growing concern as
more and more women enter the work force. This theoretical
model could serve the function of providing a cognitive base
for training and optimization of talent.

More specifically, change and improvement may be initiated
by making these women a little more aware of their styles of
coping and the factors underlying it. Because of their well
developed work-identities and strong work ethics, both Types I
and II women can improve their career prospects by acquiring
additional skills, specially if they are currently working in
not so professional jobs. The Type II women possibly in recog-
nising their strong gender-identity, may tighten a little more
in their work-identity when presented with alternative models
for identification.

Summing up, this study contributed to understanding diff-
erences in styles of coping and sense of self-efficacy as rela-
ted to the subjective experience of work which varied according
to levels of work and gender identities and permeability within
the self-system. Even though these findings are specific to
the experiences of married working women, as suggested above,
the theoretical paradigm presents a versatality in its applica-

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Appendix A-i

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

- What kind of work does your job require?

- Do you like this work?

- What do you like about it?

- Under what conditions would you consider leaving the job?

- What would you do if you got an out of station posting?

- Would you take up a better offer even if it meant leaving your family behind?

- Would you continue working if your husband received an out of station posting?

- When did you begin thinking about taking up a job?

- For what reasons did you take up a job?

- How important do you think money is in your decision to work?

- Besides money does work give you any other satisfactions?

- Can you talk about these?

- What are the problems that you face often?

- Do you find that you as a woman are being discriminated against by your senior or colleagues?

- What kinds of problems do you face managing a house and pursuing a job?

- If given the same amount of money that you get from the job, would you still work?

- Do you see yourself as working five years hence?

- How important is it in your view, for a woman, to work?

- What should a girl do in case she gets a good proposal for marriage but where the in-laws don't want her to work outside the house?

- How important do you think education is for girls?

- How important do you think education is for girls?

- Would you send your daughter to a coeducation school?

- What do you think about eveteasing?

- What are the reasons for it?

- What should a girl do in case she finds herself in such a circumstance?

- Who do you think is primarily responsible for it?

Appendix Aii

Bem Sex Role Inventory

INSTRUCTIONS

Given below is a list of sixty personality characteristics.
You are required to indicate on a 7 point scale, the extent
to which each of these adjectives apply to you. The scale
ranges from 1 (Absolutely Inapplicable) to 7 (Absolutely
Applicable) and is labelled at each point. You are requested
to be honest and accurate in your judgements about yourself.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ABSOLU-TELY INAPP-LICABLE	MOSTLY INAPP-LICABLE	MODERA-TELY INAPP-LICABLE	UNCER-TAIN	MODERA-TELY APPLI-CABLE	MOSTLY APPLI-CABLE	ABSOLUTELY APPLICABLE

Sl. No.	ADJECTIVES	RATINGS
1	Self-reliant	
2	Yielding	
3	Helpful	
4	Defends own belief	
5	Cheerful	
6	Moody	
7	Independent	
8	Shy	
9	Conscientious	
10	Athletic	
11	Affectionate	
12	Theatrical	
13	Assertive	
14	Flatterable	
15	Happy	
16	Strong personality	
17	Loyal	
18	Unpredictable	
19	Forceful	
20	Feminine	
21	Reliable	
22	Analytical	

Sl. No.	ADJECTIVES	RATINGS
23	Sympathetic	
24	Jealous	
25	Has leadership qualities	
26	Sensitive to the needs of others	
27	Truthful	
28	Willing to take risks	
29	Understanding	
30	Secretive	
31	Makes decisions easily	
32	Compassionate	
33	Sincere	
34	Self-sufficient	
35	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
36	Conceited	
37	Dominant	
38	Soft-spoken	
39	Likeable	
40	Masculine	
41	Warm	
42	Solemn	
43	Willing to take a stand	
44	Tender	
45	Friendly	
46	Aggressive	
47	Gullible	
48	Inefficient	
49	Acts as a leader	
50	Child like	
51	Adaptable	
52	Individualistic	
53	Does not use harsh language	
54	Unsympathetic	
55	Competitive	
56	Loves children	
57	Tactful	
58	Ambitious	
59	Gentle	
60	Conventional	

Appendix Aiii

Instructions

Please respond to the questions given on the following pages. The questions are divided into four sections according to the type of information they seek. Mark your answers on the answer sheet attached to the questionnaire. Please do not leave any section or question unanswered. You are further requested to express your views in the order in which the questions are presented. As you see, there are various alternatives presented with every question. Mark the one which is most representative of you and your opinion. We would like to assure you that there are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in what you think. Your responses would be held in strict confidence. We plan to come back to you to tell you about the general results of this study as a whole which deals with the experiences of the Indian working married women.

SECTION 'A'

Your responses should be marked (X) in the appropriate box on the answer sheet, corresponding to the chosen alternative.

1. Monthly salary

    (a)   Below Rs. 500
    (b)   Between Rs. 500/- to Rs. 999/-
    (c)   Between Rs. 1000/- to Rs. 1499/-
    (d)   Rs. 1500/- and above.

2. Distance of the office from home

    (a)   1 km and less
    (b)   Between 2 kms - 5 kms
    (c)   Between 6 kms - 10 kms
    (d)   10 kms and above.

3. You go to the office most often

    (a)   Walking
    (b)   Bicycle/Rickshaw
    (c)   Bus/Auto/Tempo
    (d)   Car.

4. How many hours do you spend in a typical work day on office work (including work brought home)?

    (a)   Below 4 hours
    (b)   Between 4 - 6 hours
    (c)   Between 7 - 10 hours
    (d)   Above 10 hours.

10. Professional status at the time of marriage
    (a) Holding no job
    (b) Holding a different job
    (c) In college
    (d) In current job

11. Age and sex of children
    (A) 1st child
        (a) Male
        (b) Female
    (B) 2nd child
        (a) Male
        (b) Female
    (C) 3rd child
        (a) Male
        (b) Female

If more than three children please indicate their age and sex in the place provided for comments.

12. Which of your children stay at home when you go to work?
    (A) 1st child (a) Yes
                (b) No
    (B) 2nd child (a) Yes
                (b) No
    (C) 3rd child (a) Yes
                (b) No

Please indicate if more than three children.

13. Do you stay in a joint family?
    (a) Yes
    (b) No

14. In case you do, who all stay with you?

5. Can you reach home easily in case you are required at home suddenly?
    (a) Yes
    (b) No

SECTION 'B'

Check or mark (X) the answer applicable to you in the appropriate box provided on a separate answer sheet. You can fill in more than one box if you feel more than one alternatives are equally applicable to you. Also there is a place provided for comments. Please make any comments which you feel are necessary to clarify your viewpoint.

16. Does some one else take care of the children while you go for work?

    (a) Yes
    (b) No

17. If 'yes' to question 13 then who takes care of the children while you go to work?

    (a) Your mother
    (b) Mother-in-law
    (c) Servant (male or female)
    (d) Creche/nursery school
    (e) Others - specify

18. When some one else takes care of the children,

    (A) You feel fine since the person takes good care of the children

        (a) Strongly agree
        (b) Agree
        (c) Uncertain
        (d) Disagree
        (e) Strongly disagree

    (B) You feel anxious about not being with them

        (a) Strongly agree
        (b) Agree
        (c) Uncertain
        (d) Disagree
        (e) Strongly disagree

    (C) You feel guilty about not being with them

        (a) Strongly agree
        (b) Agree
        (c) Uncertain
        (d) Disagree
        (e) Strongly disagree

    (D) You have both positive and negative feelings about the situation

        (a) Strongly agree
        (b) Agree
        (c) Uncertain
        (d) Disagree
        (e) Strongly disagree

19. What effects do you feel your employment has had on the children (give the answers separately for each child on the answer sheet)

    (a) It has had only positive effects
    (b) It has had more positive than negative results
    (c) It has probably had about the same amount of positive and negative effects
    (d) It has had only negative effects
    (e) It is immaterial to your children's well being.

20. If you had to ideally rank the relative importance of your family (husband & children), home (activities related to home management) and career roles, which would you like to have as first, second and third (indicate in order of importance)

    (a) Family
    (b) Home
    (c) Career

21. The situation actually is (again indicate in order of importance)

    (a) Family
    (b) Home
    (c) Career

22. Would you like to consider your husband's career and your career equally important?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

23. Do you consider your career and your husband's career equally important?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

24. Does your husband consider his career and your career equally important?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

25. Have you felt that your husband and you are in competition over your career prospects?

    (a) Always
    (b) Generally always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Generally never
    (e) Never

26. When do you take leave from office (half day as well as full day)

    (A) When your child is ill

        (a) Strongly agree
        (b) Agree

(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

(B) When a family member needs help

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

(C) When there are unexpected guests at home

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

(D) When you have to arrange for friends to eat at home

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

(E) When your husband has a holiday

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

(F) Any other occasion – specify

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

SECTION 'C'

Check or mark (X) the answer applicable to you in the appro-
priate box provided on a separate answer sheet. Please do
not mark more than one alternative. Also there is a place
provided for comments. Please make further comments to ela-
borate or clarify your views.

27. Does your husband provide sufficient emotional support
in terms of your career?

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain

(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

28. Does your husband provide sufficient active support
     (helping you with the household tasks) in terms of your
     career?

     (a) Strongly agree
     (b) Agree
     (c) Uncertain
     (d) Disagree
     (e) Strongly disagree

29. Has your family encouraged you to pursue your career
     (give separate answers for mother, father, mother-in-
     law, father-in-law)

     (a) Strongly agree
     (b) Agree
     (c) Uncertain
     (d) Disagree
     (e) Strongly disagree

30. As you think back on your childhood, you find that elders
     in the family paid more stress to career

     (a) Strongly agree
     (b) Agree
     (c) Uncertain
     (d) Disagree
     (e) Strongly disagree

31. As you think back on your childhood, you find that elders
     in the family paid more stress to marriage

     (a) Strongly agree
     (b) Agree
     (c) Uncertain
     (d) Disagree
     (e) Strongly disagree

32. Does your family help you with the routine tasks in order
     for you to pursue your career

     (A) Mother   (a) Yes
                          (b) No

     (B) Father   (a) Yes
                          (b) No

     (C) Mother-in-law   (a) Yes
                          (b) No

     (D) Father-in-law   (a) Yes
                          (b) No

     Specify the kind of help which is given.

33. Have your neighbours been generally supportive of your career by taking care of the children when you are late from office?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

34. By and large have your colleagues helped you to achieve the demands of the home and family by accommodating the time schedule in the office?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

35. Do you have any personal interests besides your career? (If yes, please comment in the place provided)

    (a) Yes
    (b) No

36. Do you find time to spend on other personal interests, hobbies etc. after fulfilling your office and house duties?

    (a) Yes
    (b) No

37. Do you often feel a strain in trying to fulfil both home and career obligations?

    (a) Always
    (b) Almost always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Almost never
    (e) Never

38. Do you often feel a strain between pursuing your personal interests, hobbies etc. and your career obligations

    (a) Always
    (b) Almost always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Almost never
    (e) Never

39. Do you often feel a strain between pursuing your personal interests and the demands of the home?

    (a) Always
    (b) Almost always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Almost never
    (e) Never

40. Do you often feel a strain because of the lack of time to do all the things you want to do?

  (a) Always
  (b) Almost always
  (c) Uncertain
  (d) Almost never
  (e) Never

SECTION 'D'

Mark the appropriate box in response to the questions given below. Please do not mark more than one alternative for each question. You can elaborate your point by making comments.

41. Have you hired outside help to assist you with household chores?

  (a) Yes
  (b) No

If 'a' please specify the kind of help taken or the tasks for which it is taken.

42. What type of outside help do you take for household tasks?

  (a) Regular part time help
  (b) Full time help
  (c) Sometimes in cases of necessity

43. Have you eliminated certain expected activities within the roles due to a lack of time? (Specify the activities eliminated).

  (a) Yes
  (b) No

44. Do you consciously try to alter your mother-in-laws' or elders' attitude toward what to expect from you, a working women?

  (a) Yes
  (b) No

45. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside home, do you think men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and laundry

  (a) Strongly agree
  (b) Agree
  (c) Uncertain
  (d) Disagree
  (e) Strongly disagree

46. Do you expect it of your husband to help you with routine
    tasks at home

    (a) Yes
    (b) No

47. Do you try to make family members share the household
    tasks with you even if they do not wish to do the task?

    (A) Husband   (a) Yes
                         (b) No

    (B) Mother-in-law   (a) Yes
                         (b) No

    (C) Father-in-law   (a) Yes
                         (b) No

    (D) Children   (a) Yes
                         (b) No

    (E) Any other (specify) (a) Yes
                            (b) No

48. If it is essential you do not hesitate or feel guilty in
    asking your husband to do tasks which are essentially
    considered to be that of a wife?

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

49. You keep your home and office problems/responsibilities
    totally separate i.e. you never bring work problems home
    or home problems to the office (work is work and home
    is home)

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

50. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment
    or promotion without regard to sex.

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

51. The relative amount of time and energy to be devoted to
    household duties on the one hand and career on the other
    should be determined by personal desires and interests
    rather than sex.

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

52. While at work do you often find your mind wandering toward what is happening at home?

(a) Yes
(b) No

53. While looking after the house and the family do you find your mind wandering toward work in the office?

(a) Yes
(b) No

54. Besides the home and the office do you give importance to your personal interests?

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

55. Do you attempt to meet all of work and home demands by doing what is expected of you?

(a) Always
(b) Mostly always
(c) Uncertain
(d) Almost never
(e) Never

56. Do you make a list of all the work that is to be done during the day time?

(a) Yes
(b) No

57. Do you organize your activities for the day very carefully according to the list that you have made?

(a) Always
(b) Almost always
(c) Uncertain
(d) Almost never
(e) Never

58. Do you try to solve all your problems without taking any assistance from the family members?

(a) Strongly agree
(b) Agree
(c) Uncertain
(d) Disagree
(e) Strongly disagree

59. How do you deal with the conflicting demands of home and office on you and your time?

    (a) Look for a solution by conscious strategy
    (b) You leave it on fate that whatever has happened has happened
    (c) You do not do any thing about it and try to forget it.

60. Do you feel that the responsibility of looking after your family and home is entirely your own and that your family should not have to assist you with household tasks?

    (a) Strongly **agree**
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

61. You would much rather compromise on your office demands than not do what is expected of you at home.

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

62. You deal with problems as they occur; you have no set priorities about which role comes first.

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

63. You feel that it is important for you to perform all roles according to your own standards of excellence

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

64. You often find yourself thinking about your husband or your children in the middle of an important work assignment.

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

65. Do you feel that you have sacrificed many of your personal interests as there simply is no time to do every thing?

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

66. You are constantly aware of possible conflicts that may arise between home and office demands and are looking forward for better ways to resolve them.

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

67. You have given up trying to meet all that is expected of you and you hope that people accept the fact that you are too busy to do every thing well.

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

68. You are not very organized and simply hope that the essential things will get done somehow.

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

69. You have reduced standards within certain home tasks e.g. you no longer care if your house is absolutely clean.

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

70. You have eliminated a set of office activities because you felt that you could not handle so many different demands on your time e.g. you decided not to take an out of station promotion because of your family.

    (a)   Strongly agree
    (b)   Agree
    (c)   Uncertain
    (d)   Disagree
    (e)   Strongly disagree

71. Do you ask your husband to help you in the evening with your office work?

    (a) Always
    (b) Almost always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Almost never
    (e) Never

72. Do you help your husband in the evening with his office work?

    (a) Always
    (b) Almost always
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Almost never
    (e) Never

73. You want it all -- to be a mother, wife, home maker and a career person - and are determined to do it all to do a good job of it.

    (a) Strongly agree
    (b) Agree
    (c) Uncertain
    (d) Disagree
    (e) Strongly disagree

74. How satisfied are you with the way you have dealt with possible role strains in your life?

    (a) Extremely satisfied
    (b) Satisfied
    (c) Neutral
    (d) Dissatisfied
    (e) Extremely dissatisfied

75. If you had a daughter or friend who was contemplating combining a demanding career with a marriage and family what advice would you give her as a result of your experiences?

_____

_____

Thank you.

Self Efficacy Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS

This is an exercise to see the way you evaluate yourself at your work. Given below are four columns:

(A)   In the first column you are required to make a list of all the activities that go with the job. These may be activities that you do every day or even those that you would like to do but so far have not got the opportunity e.g. doing additional courses to seek promotion etc.

(B)   In the second column rearrange these activities in a hierarchical way with the most easy, regular job at the top and that which you think you will not be able to do at the bottom.

(C)   In the third column you are required to mark Yes/No depending on whether you actually perform those activities or you don't.

(D)   In the fourth column you are required to state the confidence with which you feel you would be able to perform each activity keeping in mind the demands of the home as well. The confidence is rated as follows:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NO CONFIDENCE	VERY LITTLE CONFIDENCE	LITTLE CONFIDENCE	MODERATE CONFIDENCE	HIGH CONFIDENCE	VERY HIGH CONFIDENCE	ABSOLUTE CONFIDENCE

Against each activity you are required to put that number which is most indicative of your confidence e.g. if you feel you are absolutely confident you put 7.

While doing the test please keep in mind that you have been asked to describe yourself as honestly as possible.

LIST OF ACTIVITIES	REARRANGE THEM IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY	YES/NO	CONFIDENCE RATING

1(a).	What happens to me is my own doing.	Yes	No
1(b).	Sometimes I feel that I don't have much control over the direction my life is taking.	Yes	No
2(a).	When I make plans I am almost certain that I can make them work.	Yes	No
2(b).	If it not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyway.	Yes	No
3(a).	In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.	Yes	No
3(b).	Many times we might as well decide by flipping the coin.	Yes	No
4(a).	Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.	Yes	No
4(b).	It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck play an important role in my life.	Yes	No

Appendix B-1

Criteria for the Classification of Women

	Type 1	Type 2
salience of work-identity		
1. Primacy of work or postponing non-work activities and showing responsibility toward the job	High	High
2. Perceptions of allotted time or the time allotted to work as belonging exclusively for work	High	High
3. Stated intention to continue working even in circumstances such as their own or their husband's transfer	High	High
permeability of work-identity		
1. Work involvement or identification with the area of specialization need to be advanced or promoted	Low	High
2. Professional orientation or identifying specific career goals and making them concrete	Low	High
3. Intrinsic-extrinsic motivation or career decisions reflecting intrinsic motivation would be based on the characteristics of work to be performed while decisions reflecting extrinsic motivation would be based on the nature of the context in which work is performed	Low	High
4. Work contributes to a sense of self worth, feelings of independence, adequacy etc.	Low	High

	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
5. Future orientation or perceptions of themselves as continuing to work. Type I would give up work if given a choice but because of externally imposed demands cannot think of giving up work		High	Low
6. Awareness and realization of career path or planning for future and acting upon the plans	Low	High	Low

Results of the Principal Axis Factor Analysis of the Coping Styles Questionnaire with Varimax Rotation

	Item no.	Factors and their respective loadings		
		1	2	3
REACTIVE ROLE BEHAVIOUR	1	-.80	-.03	.13
	2	.73	.16	-.35
	3	.83	.02	-.21
	4	.76	.26	-.21
	5	.76	.24	-.23
	6	.76	.21	-.27
PERSONAL ROLE DEFINITION	1	.09	.73	-.29
	2	.00	.89	-.09
	3	-.03	.78	-.03
	4	.30	.81	-.03
	5	.32	.71	-.19
	6	.32	.66	.23
STRUCTURAL ROLE BEHAVIOUR	1	-.44	-.16	.69
	2	-.15	.15	.69
	3	-.23	-.27	.82
	4	-.22	-.27	.76
	5	-.23	.04	.62
Eigen value		6.929	2.826	1.625
% of variance		40.8	16.6	9.6